A SYSTEM

OF

GEOGRAPHY,

POPULAR AND SCIENTIFIC,

OR

A PHYSICAL, POLITICAL, AND STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

WORLD AND ITS VARIOUS DIVISIONS.

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SWITZERLAND.

THE country lying at the foot of the Alps was in the earliest periods of history denominated *Helvetia*, or the land of the Helvetians, from its ancient inhabitants, a tribe of German origin. It received its modern name of *Switzerland* from one of its cantons, which was among the earliest to enrol itself in the league which was entered into for the support of national freedom in the 14th century. Switzerland extends from 45° 50′ to 47° 50′ N. L., and from 5° 50′ to 10° 30′ E. L. Its greatest length from E. to W. has been estimated at 200 British miles; and its greatest breadth from N. to S. at about 130 miles. Its figure, however, is pretty nearly that of a right-angled triangle: having its right angle at Schaffhausen, and the two others at the Mont-du-Chat, and Munsterthal. Its superficies is estimated by Schoch at 875.61, or 18,825 British miles, but by Stein at only 696.33 German, or about 15,000 British square miles. It is bounded on the N. by Baden and the lake of Constance; on the E. by the Tyrol; on the S. by Lombardy and Sardinia· and on the W. by France.

The Swiss confederacy consists of 22 independent cantons: viz.

	Area according to Schoch.	In British miles.	Population according to Schoch, in 1816.	Population accor to Crome, in 18
Zurich, . .	45	967.5	182,123	182,080
Bern, . . .	173	3719.5	291,200	291,600
Lucern, . .	36	774	86,700	99,972
Uri, . . .	24	516	14,000	14,600
Schwyz or Schweiz,	22	473	28,900	28,900
Underwalden, .	12.2	262.3	21,200	21,200
Glarus, . .	21.25	456.875	26,575	24,000
Zug, . .	5.5	118.25	14,300	14,750
Fryburg or Freybrug,	23	494.5	67,814	89,600
Solothurn or Soleure,	13	279.5	47,882	48,600
Basel or Basle, .	12.5	268.75	45,900	49,200
Schaffhausen, .	8	172	30,000	30,000
Appenzell, .	10.5	225.75	55,000	55,000
St Gall, . .	40	860	130,301	130,800
The Grisons or Bündten,	140	3010	73,200	73,200
Aargau, .	36	774	143,960	143,960
Thurgau, .	16.66	358.19	78,533	77,091
Tessino or Tessin,	55.5	1193.25	88,793	88,793
Vaadt or the Pays de Vaud,	70	1505	145,215	141,676
The Vallis or Vallais,	92	1978	62,809	62,809
Neuchatel, .	15	322.5	49,722	50,000
Geneva, .	4.5	96.75	44,000	40,000
	875.61	18,825	1,728,127	1,757,831

Hassel's *Staatshandbuch*, (II. 96), published in 1816, gives 1,714,810 as the population of this country; and another work published at the

same period, estimates it at 1,686,215: Balbi fixed it in 1826, at 1,980,000. From Jacob's late Report on the Corn Question, we learn that, by a census taken in 1821, the population of Switzerland was found to be 1,783,231; and in 1827 it was found to be 2,037,030, showing an increase of 253,799 in six years, being above 42,000 yearly. From Schoch's statistics, it appears that the canton of Geneva has the most dense population, being 9,776 souls to the German square mile; while the canton of the Grisons has only 522. Such differences in the relative population of different districts can easily be accounted for in a country like Switzerland, whose varied surface presents tracts of luxuriant fertility in the immediate neighbourhood of the most dreary and sterile districts.

CHAP. I.—HISTORY.

Early History.] When Switzerland was invaded by the Roman armies under Julius Cæsar, and subsequently under Tiberius—then commanding the legions of Augustus—that country was inhabited by the Tigurini, the Rhætians, and other German tribes. Cæsar, in a narrative which still continues to be admired for its historical fidelity and elegance, has transmitted to posterity a circumstantial account of the subjugation of these tribes to the authority of Rome. Helvetia continued a Roman province until the empire was dissolved by the irruption of the Northern hordes. During this period the Roman language, manners, laws, coins, dress, and architecture, were introduced into Helvetia. Christianity is supposed to have been first preached in this country in the year 300. In 430 the Burgundians took possession of the southern and western districts between the Ursa or Reuss, the Rhone, and the ridge of the Jura; while the Alemanni conquered the northern and eastern parts between the Rhine and the Rhone. In consequence of these inroads and conquests, the language of the Swiss became blended with that of the German dialect of the Western Suabes; and the country received a new political constitution modelled upon that of the German nations. Every warrior received a piece of ground in feu-farm from his chief; one hundred of these farms constituted a *cent;* and justice was administered among the freemen of each cent by a judge or *centgraf,* whose court or place of judgment was called the *mallus.* Several cents formed a *gau* or county, of which the head-officer was called the *graf* or count; and these counts held allegiance to a duke. At first the counts held their gaus during life only; but they afterwards became hereditary, and the counts yielded only such allegiance to the king as suited their own purposes, while they compelled the free inhabitants of their respective gaus to acknowledge them as their liege lords. In 496, Clovis, king of France, conquered the Alemanni; and in 534 his sons subdued the Burgundians, and reduced Helvetia to a province of the Frankish empire. In the division of Charlemagne's empire, which took place in 843, the Burgundian part of Helvetia fell to the lot of Lothar, and the Alemannian part to that of Louis the German, who shortly afterwards united the Burgundian part also, under the name of *Minor Burgundy,* to his Helvetian territories. Upon the death of Charles le Gros, Rudolph of Stretlingen founded an independent kingdom of Minor Burgundy, and fixed the seat of government at Payerne or Peterlingen; but the Alemannian part of Helvetia continued subject to German sway, and was bestowed by the emperor on the duke of Zähringen, who after-

wards annexed a part of Burgundy to his possessions. The Swiss mountaineers have ever been distinguished for their ardent love of liberty and free institutions. Accordingly the peasantry began to form a fourth and independent class of the community in this country so early as the ages of the Crusades, and never afterwards relinquished their privileges as freemen. The dukes of Zähringen, and the counts of Savoy, Kyburg, and Hapsburg or Habsburg, were the most powerful lords of the country at this period; and the personal influence of the nobility was greatly increased when, after the death of Berthold of Zähringen in 1218, Alemannia reverted to the German emperor. To protect themselves against the tyranny of the powerful nobility, the towns of Zurich, Berne, Basel, Soleure, Uri, Schweiz, and Underwalden, which had purchased or received in donation their territorial rights from the German emperors, and called themselves towns or counties of the empire, united in a league of mutual defence, and destroyed the castles of several of the knights who had rendered themselves obnoxious by their robberies and oppression. But when, in addition to his own domains, count Rudolph of Habsburg, by the death of his uncle, count Hardmann, became liege lord of Kyburg also, in 1264, the whole country was compelled to acknowledge the rule of so potent a chief. The ambition of his son and successor, Albrecht, however, excited the country to shake off its ignominious yoke. Albrecht wished to unite the *forest towns*,[1] as they were called, with his Austrian possessions; and on their refusal to renounce their allegiance to the German empire, he instructed his governors to harass the independent citizens by every means in their power. Driven almost to despair by the tyranny of their rulers, thirty-three brave and patriotic men, among whom were Fürst of Uri and his son William Tell, Stauffacher of Schweiz, and Mechthal of Underwalden, assembled on the Rutli, a meadow on the banks of the lake of Lucerne, on the night of the 7th of November, 1307, and there solemnly swore to defend the ancient liberties of their country against Austrian oppression. The designs of these noble-minded men were somewhat prematurely revealed, by an incident familiar to every reader. Gessler, the Austrian bailiff or governor, in the wantonness of tyranny, had directed a hat to be set up on a pole, and ordered every Swiss to uncover his head when he passed before this symbol of the power of Austria. William Tell scorned to obey this order, and passed before the dreaded hat without uncovering himself. Gessler, incensed at this mark of disrespect, ordered Tell to be led to instant execution unless he should cleave, with an arrow, an apple placed on the head of his own son. Tell, who was an expert marksman, accepted of this fearful alternative, and hit the apple without wounding his child; but the governor's attention having been excited by a second arrow which Tell wore in his belt during this dreadful trial of his skill, he inquired what he meant to have done with it, as he would not have been allowed more than one shot whether he hit or failed. "This arrow," exclaimed the undaunted Swiss, "was meant for your heart, had the boy fallen under my hand!" Gessler was too genuine a tyrant to allow the heroism of this answer to atone for its boldness; he ordered his guards to seize Tell and conduct him a prisoner to his own castle. On their way, while crossing the lake of Lucerne, a storm arose which threatened the instant destruction of the governor's barge, whereupon Tell—who was an

[1] The four cantons of Schweiz, Uri, Zug, and Underwalden, were called the *forest towns*.

expert pilot—was freed from his chains, and allowed to steer the vessel, which he did successfully, but watching his opportunity as the barge approached the shore, he made a sudden spring,—gained the ledge of a projecting rock near the Axelberg, with his bow in his hand,—and pushed the boat off again with a vigorous arm. He then betook himself to flight, but directed his steps towards the ravine of Rüssnacht, through which he knew the barge must pass if it weathered the storm. Here he concealed himself amidst the rocks, and on the approach of the vessel took vengeance on his country's tyrant, by shooting him through the heart with the single arrow which still remained in his belt. Gessler's death was the signal of a general rising; and a fierce war ensued between the Swiss and Austrians which lasted till the close of the 15th century. Tell was present at the battle of Morgarten, and is said to have lost his life in 1350, during an inundation of the river Schächenbach.[2]

Struggle with Austria.] On the 1st of January, 1308, the Swiss began one of the most gallant struggles for national independence which history records. Albrecht doubtless rejoiced at the pretext now offered him for sending Austrian troops into Switzerland; but before he could put his design into execution, he fell a victim to a conspiracy which his unjust treatment of his nephew, John duke of Suabia, had fomented. The rising liberties of Switzerland were protected, and the privileges of the Forest towns confirmed by Henry VII. Albrecht's successor in the German empire; but the house of Austria struggled hard to regain its ascendancy in this country. The victory, however, which the gallant Swiss obtained over the archduke Leopold, at Morgarten, on the 6th of December, 1315, was followed by the confederacy of Brunn between the five *ancient cantons*, as they came to be called, of Lucerne, Zurich, Glarus, Zug, and Berne. Shortly after this, *guilds* were established throughout the commercial cities of Europe, by which the common people and tradesmen obtained a share in the administration, which put an end to the oligarchy of noble families. The successive victories of Sempach, on the 9th of July, 1386, and Näfels, on the 9th of April, 1389, obtained an insecure peace for the Swiss; and foreign powers began to court alliance with the confederacy. On the 20th of August, 1444, the Swiss fought a battle worthy of eternal fame, when the church-yard of St Jacob, at Basle, became a second Thermopylæ, by the gallant and effective stand which 1600 Swiss made in it against a French army of 20,000 men, which Frederic III. had called into Switzerland for the protection of his hereditary possession of Habsburg. They next excited the ambition of Charles the Bold of Burgundy, whom they defeated

[2] Whether every part of this interesting story be historically true, this is not the place to inquire. At the same time, we must be allowed the liberty of remarking, that the tradition is confirmed by the existence of several chapels said to have been built in memory of the deliverance which Tell's gallant action achieved for the liberties of his country,—by the names given to various parts of the rocks of the Rüssnacht,—by several very old paintings,—and by various other species of evidence which, though not amounting to historical certainty, ought at least to obtain a certain degree of respect for the tradition. John Müller, the celebrated Swiss historian, and Planta, the historian of the Helvetic confederacy, have each adopted the story; and there is one circumstance which we think greatly confirms its historical veracity, namely, the fact that the Swiss were long in the habit of making yearly pilgrimages to the rock where Tell saved himself by leaping ashore, and that so early as 1388, the canton of Uri had built a chapel near the spot, which it is said was visited, the first year after its erection, by no less than 114 pilgrims, who had personally known Tell. A very similar story is indeed told by Saxo Grammaticus, of a Danish king Harold and a certain person named Tholko; but the tradition might easily have passed from Helvetia to the North, by means of the intercourse which the Hanseatic towns kept up between every part of Europe at this period

at Granson, with the loss of 700 men; whereupon the confederates were joined by the duke of Lorraine and several of the Imperial towns. At Morat, 'the proud, the patriot field'—where the confederates, however, were superior in number—the duke was again defeated by 'the brotherly, and civic band,' with the loss of 8000 men. Discouraged by these successive reverses, the duke, in a fit of desperation, gave battle again, at Nancy, and was slain with most of his nobility. These successes emboldened the Swiss to assume the part of aggression; and in 1460, they seized upon Thurgau, then belonging to Austria. In 1481, the league was joined by the cantons of Friburg and Soleure; and shortly afterwards the confederates allied themselves with the Grisons, in opposition to the views of the emperor Maximilian I. who wished to force them to join the Suabian league. This circumstance gave rise to the Suabian war, which was terminated by the peace of Basle, in 1499, after a struggle in which the Swiss gained no fewer than six successive victories over the German forces. The cantons of Basle and Schaffhausen joined the confederacy in 1501, and the canton of Appenzell, in 1513. In 1512, the Swiss conquered the Valteline and Chiavenna, and also took from Milan the Italian bailliwicks now forming the canton of Tessino. Having lost the battle of Marignano against Francis I. the confederates concluded a peace with France at Friburg, in 1516; and five years afterwards entered into an alliance with that country.

The Reformation.] About this period the doctrines of the Reformation began to be taught in Switzerland. Zuinglius, after having attacked various doctrines of the Catholic church, preached openly against the sale of indulgences in 1518: as Luther had already done in Germany the preceding year. The cantons of Zurich, Berne, Schaffhausen, Basle, St Gall, Mühlhausen, and Bienne, embraced the new doctrines; and violent disputes arose betwixt the protestant and catholic cantons. In Glarus, Appenzell, and the Grisons, the people were divided between the two creeds; but the inhabitants of Lucerne, Uri, Schweiz, Underwalden, Zug, Friburg, Soleure, Vallis, and the Italian bailliwicks, adhered to catholicism. Religious zeal soon degenerated into fanaticism; and the mutual hatred of the parties kindled a civil war. A protestant preacher had already suffered death in the flames at Schweiz, and the two parties were drawn up in hostile array against each other, when matters were accommodated by the interference of some of the more moderate leaders on both sides, in a treaty of peace in 1529; but the war soon broke out afresh. Geneva—which had been governed by a bishop and count from the middle ages, and had at last come under the house of Savoy—shook off its allegiance in 1524, and concluded an alliance with Berne and Friburg; while Calvin, who had come from France to Geneva, placed himself, by his talents and integrity, at the head of the Reformation in Switzerland, and even for a while conducted the civil affairs of Geneva. Though Calvin differed in many points of doctrine from the great German reformer, the adversaries of the protestant cause made no distinction betwixt their followers; nor was it till after the conference of Poissy, in 1561, when the adherents of Calvin rejected several articles in the confession of Augsburg, that the latter took the name of *Calvinists.* In 1531, Berne and Geneva concluded an alliance, and the former canton got possession of the Pays de Vaud, which was not, however, entirely ceded by Savoy till the peace of Lausanne in 1564. From this period until the recognition of the independence of the Swiss confederacy in the Westphalian peace of 1648, religious and political dissensions continued to agitate Switzerland; aristocratical and democratical

principles came into constant collision with each other; and the connexion between the confederated states and Germany became daily less intimate. Nor was this unhappy state of things greatly modified by the season of repose which Switzerland now enjoyed. "After the first heroic period, from 1308 to the battle of Morat in 1476," says Simond, "the cantons became jealous and selfish, evincing towards each other that unfriendly spirit which foreign States usually entertain for their next neighbour. They learnt to calculate their individual distance from danger, before they afforded each other assistance; and were apt to seek in foreign alliances that protection of which they were not certain at home. Thence interminable quarrels among themselves. Their general diets could rarely agree upon, and seldom execute measures of public utility; and although the Reformation might afterwards change the nature of their civil dissensions, and purify their motives, it did not put an end to them; and a long succession of religious wars left the federal bond more lax and inefficient than ever. The various governments of Switzerland had overlooked the changes which time, and a variety of events to which they had been strangers, had operated among their neighbours, and the alterations of manners and opinions among their own citizens as subjects themselves. An uninterrupted state of peace, for more than 300 years, had left them in ignorance of their present strength, which they continued to estimate by the battles of the 15th century. Engrossed with paltry jealousies, and divided among themselves, they heeded not the awful warning of the French revolution, and neglected to take advantage of the six or seven years' breathing-time allowed them to compromise matters with the new principles: as if they fancied they might be stopped at the customhouses on the frontier."

Helvetic Republic.] It has been ingeniously said of Switzerland, that the hand of Nature herself appears to have marked out that country for the citadel of Europe, where Freedom might be safely lodged when driven from less secure regions. Unfortunately, the extraordinary supineness and selfishness of her rulers during the modern part of her history, have been such as to strip her of the enviable distinction she might otherwise have borne amid the nations of Europe, and to place her in the very lowest grade of the political scale. Geneva was the first of the cantons to catch the spirit of her Gallic neighbours; and the reign of terror was established in this little republic in 1794. The inhabitants of the Pays de Vaud, irritated by the aristocratical government of Berne, cast themselves, in 1796, on French protection; and their example was quickly followed by the inhabitants of the Valtelline, the Bormio, and Chiavenna, whom the Grisons had obstinately refused to admit to a community of civil and political rights, but whom Buonaparte instantly received into the Cisalpine republic. After vain negotiation, the French army, under generals Brune and Schauenburg, entered Switzerland to the number of 40,000 men; and having defeated the Bernese on the 2d and 5th of March, 1798, united Geneva to the French republic, and established a new constitution in Switzerland, under the name of the *Helvetic republic.* By this constitution the whole country was divided into 22 departments, each of which was to send 4 senators and 8 councillors to the general legislative assembly. The French Directory now determined, for the purpose of forwarding a vast plan of campaign against the Allies, to take military possession of Switzerland; and a series of brilliant military manœuvres were executed on this theatre by the opposed forces of France and the Allies. After the peace of Luneville, the first consul invited the attendance of deputies from the

aristocratical and democratical parties of the Helvetic republic at Paris, to whom he presented a new Act of mediation, as it was called, on the 19th of February, 1803. By this new constitution the republic was divided into 19 cantons; but in 1806, Neufchatel was given to prince Alexander Berthier, one of Napoleon's generals; and in 1810, the Valais was incorporated with France.

Recent Act of Confederacy.] Such was the political situation of Switzerland when the Allies entered it in December 1813, after the decisive battle of Leipsig. On the 8th of September, 1814, a new Act of confederacy was entered into at Zurich, by the 19 republics, which were joined on the 12th of the same month by the cantons of Geneva, the Valais, and Neufchatel. The congress of Vienna, on the 20th of November, 1815, recognized the perpetual neutrality of the Swiss cantons; but Austrian influence is nevertheless felt and acknowledged in every quarter of the confederacy. Placed between the rival powers of France and Austria, Switzerland will ever be in great danger of being made the theatre of war in the contentions of these powers, her frontier of 50 leagues in extent offering a *point d'appui* to the movements of two armies; at present she owes her security to the mutual jealousies of the other States. May the time be not far distant when the Swiss cantons, united amongst themselves, and fired by the remembrance of 'deeds which should not pass away, and names that must not wither,' shall vindicate the ancient glories of their land, and reclaim to themselves that heritage of right which was purchased for them by the blood of their noblest ancestors!

CHAP. II.—PHYSICAL FEATURES—CLIMATE—PRODUCTIONS—AGRICULTURE—INDUSTRY, AND COMMERCE.

Physical Features.] SWITZERLAND has been celebrated by every traveller for its magnificent and picturesque scenery; and is certainly one of the most remarkable countries in Europe. Nature offers here the most striking contrasts; here the icy climate of the poles alternates with the heat of the equator,—the sterility of Greenland, with the smiling appearance of the valley of Tempe; icebergs rise towering into the air close upon the borders of fertile valleys,—luxuriant corn-fields are surrounded by immense and dreary plains of ice; in one step the traveller passes from the everlasting snow to the freshest verdure,—or from glaciers of chilling coldness to valleys from whose rocky sides the sunbeams are reflected with almost scorching power.

Mountains.] Switzerland is the most mountainous district of Europe. The northern parts are the most level; but even these present mountains rising upwards of 2000 feet above the level of the sea. The land rises gradually from N. to S.; and is throughout its whole extent covered by the system of the Alps, of which the centre seems to be the St Gotthard, from which the other chains—in which the highest points are found—diverge like radii in every direction. Only three groups of these gigantic mountains properly belong to Switzerland: namely, 1*st*. The Swiss Alps, or *Alpes Lepontiæ*, or *Adulæ*, which run from the centre in a S.W. direction, or from *Monte Rosa* on both sides of the Rhone, through the Vallisthal, by St Gotthard, to the Muschelhorn and the Bernhardino in the Grisons, and separate Switzerland from Lombardy;

2d. The Rhætian Alps, or *Alpes Rhæticæ,* which run from the Bernhardino through the whole of the Grisons and the Tyrol, and southwards to *Monte Pelegrino;* 3d. The Pennine Alps which border upon the Valais, and separate that district from Piedmont. The primitive Alps form the central ridges of these chains; they consist of primitive granite. On the N.E. and S.W. side of the primitive Alps run the calcareous Alps, consisting of slate and floetz rock. On the exterior of these appear the alluvial ridges, consisting of sand-stone and marle; and on the N. and N.W. side of these ridges run the calcareous chains of the Jura. The Alps are generally divided into the High, Middle, and Low Alps. The first rise from 8,000 to 15,000 feet above the level of the sea, and are covered with perpetual snow and ice; their sides present naked and precipitous rocks, with here and there a patch of vegetation; and the immense masses of ice and snow which are piled upon their summits form inexhaustible reservoirs to the rivers which flow from the Alpine heights towards the lower countries of Europe. These are, to use the words of a late illustrious poet,

'The palaces of Nature, whose vast walls
Have pinnacled in clouds their snowy scalps,
And throned Eternity in icy halls
Of cold sublimity, where forms and falls
The avalanche—the thunderbolt of snow!
All that expands the spirit, yet appals,
Gather around these summits, as to show
How earth may pierce to heaven, yet leave vain man below.'

The Middle Alps begin at about 5,500 feet above the sea, and rise to the line of perpetual congelation; they are rich in magnificent scenery, and covered with hardy Alpine plants; here too the most elevated pasture-districts occur. The Lower Alps commence with an elevation of about 2,000 feet, and extend to 5,500 feet; they are covered with forests and afford the earliest pasture in spring.[3]

[3] We subjoin the heights of the principal Alpine summits, from Ebel, Saussure, Tralles, Weiss, Welden, &c. which we have reduced to English feet: viz.

	British feet.
Mont Rosa in Valais	15,170
The Matterhorn in Valais	14,784
The Finsterahorn in Berne	14,116
The peak of the Furca, M. St. Gotthard,	14,040
The Jungfrauhorn in Berne	13,730
The Mönchhorn in Berne	13,510
The Schreckhörn, or peak of terror, in Berne	13,494
The Eigĕr in Berne	13,086
The Wetterhorn in Berne	12,470
The Blümlis alp in Berne	12,216
The Alt-Els in Berne	12,194
The Galenstock in Uri	12,085
The Doldenhorn in Berne	11,933
The Töedi Berg in Glarus	11,818
The Sustenhorn in Uri	11,605
The Titlis in Underwalden	11,540
The Spitzliberg in Uri	11,374
The St Bernhardt in Valais	11,116
The Kistenberg in Glarus	11,091
The Simplon in Valais,	11,000
The Vogelberg in Grisons	10,965
The Scheerhorn in Uri	10,864
The Diableret in Vaud	10,765
The Spanœrier in Uri	10,752
The Dent de Midi	10,455
The Jochberg in Underwalden	10,368
The Fiendo, a peak of the Gotthard,	10,186
The Blakenstock in Uri	10,176
The Bernhardino in Grisons	10,137

Glaciers.] The glaciers of Switzerland are best pictured to the mind by imagining a stormy sea instantly congealed, scarcely presenting an inch of even surface, but bristling all over with sharp ridges. They appear to have advanced and receded in many parts much beyond their present limits: the weight of the newly accumulated snow pushing them down, while the heat of the lower region dissolves them as they descend. A recent traveller thus eloquently describes this feature in Swiss scenery: "The glaciers of the Aar, which we visited from the Grimsel, presented a scene which I am convinced the world cannot equal; which none who have beheld it can ever forget, and none who have not seen it can ever conceive. You cannot picture the scene; but you can form some idea of the awe-struck astonishment which filled our minds, when, after surmounting all the difficulties of the way, we found ourselves standing amidst a world of ice, extending around, beneath, above us,—far beyond where the straining sight, in every direction, vainly sought to follow the interminable frozen leagues of glaciers, propped up in towering pyramids, or shapeless heaps, or opening into yawning gulphs and unfathomable fissures. The tremendous barren rocks and mountains of the impenetrable Alps, amidst which the terrific Finsterahorn reared his granitic pyramid of fourteen thousand feet, appeared alone amidst this world of desolation. Eternal and boundless wastes of ice,—naked and inaccessible mountains of rock, which had stood unchanged and untrodden from creation, were the only objects which met our view. Hitherto, with all we had seen of desolation and horror, there was some contrast, some relief. The glaciers of Chamouni are bordered by glowing harvests; the glaciers of Grindelwald are bounded by its romantic vale; the glaciers of the Scheideck shine forth amidst its majestic woods. Even among the savage rocks and torrents of the Grimsel, though animated life is seen no more, the drooping birch and feathery larch protrude their storm-beaten branches from the crevices of the preci-

	British feet.
The Windgelli in Uri	9,962
The Seesalplana in Grisons	9,820
The Deut de Morcles in Vaud	9,547
The Glärnisch in Glarus	9,496
The Haustock in Glarus	9,493
The Grimsel in Berne	9,460
The Prosa, a peak of the Gotthard	9,250
The Wellisstock in Underwalden	9,107
The Galanda in the Lower Grisons	8,925
The Felsen Kamen in Grisons	8,345
The Pass of the Furca,	8,316
The Sentis in Appenzell	8.181
The Niesen in Berne	7,820
The Col de Balme in Valais	7,558
The Wegghis in Glarus	7,402
The Gemmi in Berne	7,378
The Stockhorn in Berne	7.218
The Pass of the Simplon in Valais	6,579
The Scheideck in Berne	6,418

To the W. of the Alps, along the boundaries of France, runs a calcareous ridge of the Jura mountains, lower than the Alps, but presenting many beautiful valleys and picturesque points of scenery. The highest summits of this ridge are.—

Recolet de Thoery, highest summit,	5,612
Grand Colombier,	5,536
Montendre,	5,463
La Dole,	5,453
Crite La Goutte,	5,324

The Jorat, a sand-stone ridge, runs through the Canton de Vaud, and unites the Alps with the Jura. To it belong

The Mont Pelerin in Vaud	4,083
The Chalet à Gobet	3,010

pices; and the lonely pine-tree is seen on high, where no hand can ever reach it. But here there is no trace of vegetation, no blade of grass, no bush, no tree; no spreading weed or creeping lichen invades the cold still desolation of the icy desert. It is the death of nature! We seemed placed in a creation in which there was no principle of life; translated to another orb, where existence was extinct, and where Death, unresisted, held his terrific reign. The only sound which meets the ear is that of the loud detonation of the ice, as it bursts open into new abysses with the crash of thunder, and reverberates from the wild rocks like the voice of the mountain-storms."

Avalanches.] The avalanches or slips of snow form another peculiar feature in the scenery of Switzerland. "We sometimes," says Simond, "saw a blue line suddenly drawn across a field of pure white; then another above it, and another, all parallel, and attended each time with a loud crash like cannon, producing together the effect of long-protracted peals of thunder. At other times these portions of the vast field of snow, or rather snowy-ice, gliding gently away exposed to view a new surface of purer white than the first; and the cast-off drapery, gathering in long folds, either fell at once down the precipice, or disappeared behind some intervening ridge, which the sameness of colour rendered invisible, and were again seen soon after in another direction, shooting out of some narrow channel a cataract of white dust, which, observed through a telescope, was, however, found to be composed of broken fragments of ice or compact snow, many of them sufficient to overwhelm a village if there had been any in the valley where they fell. Our guides assured us that pushing with your foot against the edge of a beginning cleft in a bed of snow, is often sufficient to determine the fall of an avalanche; that is, the sliding of the newer over the older bed of snow. The discharge of a gun, the jingling of the bells of mules, the voices of men may be attended with the same consequences." There are innumerable valleys in Switzerland entirely desolated, and almost inaccessible to any thing having life, in consequence of being the constant receptacles of these tremendous visitations from the surrounding cliffs. Not only the snow-fields, but mountains themselves occasionally slide down into the country below. In 1806 a piece of the Rossberg, twice as large as the city of Paris, slipped down at once into the lake of Lowertz, and occasioned the most dreadful devastation. Another accident of the same kind occurred on the lake of Lucerne in 1801, when eleven persons were drowned at a village on the opposite side of the lake by the wave raised by the plunge of the falling mass. The latest devastation committed by a snow avalanche occurred in 1827 in the Valais, when the village of Biel, in the valley of Conches containing 459 inhabitants, was overwhelmed, and a great number of lives lost. Various contrivances are adopted in order to secure the houses from avalanches; sometimes the exposed side is strengthened by strong walls; and sometimes a triangular building as high as the roof, the acute angle of which breaks the shock, is used as a protection. In the valley of St Anthony in the Prettigau, these pyramids are formed of snow.

Rivers.] The principal rivers of Switzerland are: 1*st.* The ***Rhine.*** This noble river has its three sources in the Rhaetian mountains to the E. of the Gotthard, and pursues a course of above 200 miles within Switzerland, or on its borders. The Farther Rhine collects its waters from the Crispalt a branch of the St Gotthard, the Tavetscherthal, and a small lake in the Urserenthal; and flows through the valley of Disentis along with

the Middle Rhine which descends from the Luckmanier, a mountain in the Medelseethale. The Hither or Upper Rhine flows from mount Avicula, and joins the first two torrents united under the name of the Lower Rhine, in front of the picturesque castle of Reichenau, at an elevation of above 6,180 English feet above the level of the sea. It then flows through the Rheinwald, a magnificent and stupendous ravine, bordered by perpendicular rocks, which rise to the height of 3000 feet on both sides, and are clothed to their summits with stately firs. This river then flows through the lake of Constance from E. to W. and after passing Schaffhausen forms a celebrated cataract, which, with the remainder of its course, have been already described in our account of Germany.—*2d.* The *Rhone* is the second great Swiss river. It rises in a glacier of the Furca,[4] and soon after receives the Eler. Before entering the lake of Geneva it receives the Siders, the Sitter, the Bisonza, and the Dranse; but after quitting the canton of Geneva it becomes a French river.—*3d.* The *Tessin* or *Ticino* also rises in the Gotthard, and flows towards the Lago Maggiore in the Italian territories.—*4th.* The *Inn* rises on the south side of the Septimer Berg, from a small lake called Lungin, and is called the Aqua de Oen at its entrance into the lake of Sits or Zeglio, a small way from its source in the Grisons.

Lakes.] The lakes of Switzerland are numerous, and some of them of considerable magnitude. Among the largest are: 1*st.* The lake of Geneva, the ancient *Lemanus*, and called by the French *Lac Leman*, which covers a surface of above 330 English square miles, and is above 40 miles long. It is 1,230 English feet above the level of the sea. The Rhone flows through the 'clear, placid Leman,' and its banks exhibit the most lovely scenery, having on one side the Alps and on the other the heights of the Jura. The depth of this lake—though evidently gradually diminishing like most other fresh water lakes—is in some places 1000 feet. The water frequently fluctuates greatly within a few hours. These sudden flows and ebbs, or occasional rufflings, are called *seiches*.—*2d.* The lake of *Constance*, lying between the cantons of Thurgau and St Gall, has been already described in our article Germany.—*3d.* The lake *Lugano* in the canton of Tessino, at an elevation of 882 French feet above the sea, is nearly 25 miles long, and 6 miles broad in some places. It communicates with the Italian Lago Maggiore by the Tresa.—*4th.* The lake of *Lucerne*, called also the lake of the Forest-towns, lies at an elevation of 1,408 English feet above the sea, between the cantons of Lucerne, Uri, Schweiz, and Underwalden; it is above twenty British miles in length, and from 8 to 10 in breadth; its greatest depth is about 600 feet, and its navigation is dangerous.—*5th.* The lake of *Zurich* is a very romantic sheet of water, about 23 miles long and 4 broad.—*6th.* The lake of *Neufchatel*, or *Neuenburg*, is about the same extent as that of Zurich.—*7th.* The lake of *Thun*,

[4] The glacier of the Rhone is the most beautiful in the Upper Valais; it expands like a fan, and forms an immense segment of a sphere, from the summit of which, as from a centre, deep fissures of a fine blue diverge and terminate in the circumference. At the base of this segment two arches of ice appear, whence two impetuous torrents rush, which, after uniting, carry to what the peasants call the source of the Rhone, the first tribute which it receives. In reality, these two torrents are the sources of the Rhone; for they rush from higher ground, and carry twenty times the volume of water which the little stream believed by the peasantry to be the real source contains. The latter, however, which rises in the middle of a beautiful valley, is treated by the inhabitants of the country with great veneration; this preference is perhaps owing to the fact of its being a warm spring, resisting the cold of winter, and clothing the meadows in which it rises with perpetual verdure. The heat of this spring is 65° F.; its height above the Mediterranean 6904 English feet.

in the canton of Berne, is 4 or 5 leagues long, and almost a league wide. Its depth is 350 feet, and its height 1,900 English feet above the sea.—8*th*. The lake of *Brientz*, in the same canton, is much smaller; but its aspect is more wild than that of any other lake in Switzerland, for its high calcareous mountains descend rapidly to the water. Among the smaller lakes are the lake of *Morat*, near Aventicum; the lake of *Biel*, with the beautiful island of St Pierre celebrated by Rousseau's stay on it; and the *Lac de Joux*, in the Vaud. There are many thermal springs found among the valleys of the Alps, which some geologists have attributed to the presence of pyrites in the soil, others to the subterranean fires which are supposed to have first elevated these rocks by volcanic agency.

Climate.] From the great elevation of Switzerland, the air is pure and salubrious; and though in some of the valleys the heat of summer be intense, yet the atmosphere is in general much cooler than might be expected from the latitude. Three different climates may be said to exist in Switzerland: viz. The cold in the Alps, the temperate in the plains, and the hot in the canton of Tessino, which has an Italian sky and climate. In the valleys of Switzerland, however, the temperature of districts at a short distance from one another, often varies extremely. The elevation of the valley of Untersee is the same as that of Gestein; yet the thermometer in 1822–3 fell only to 8° below Zero in the former, whereas in the latter it fell to 14½°, and at Berne to 16°. According to Humboldt, on the southern Alps, between the latitude of 45½° and 46° the inferior limit of perpetual snow is at the height of 8,768 English feet. According to other authorities the height at which it never melts is 9,268 English feet. The distance between the trees and snow is 2,880 feet; the upper limit of trees 5,880 feet,—the last species of trees towards the snow is the *pinus abies;* and the distance between the snow and the corn 4,480 feet.

Productions.] The great variety in temperature enables Switzerland to produce a greater variety of plants than is found in almost any other region of the same extent in Europe. Wine is produced in the cantons of Tessino, Vaud, Geneva, Valais, Neufchatel, Berne, Thurgau, Aargau, Schaffhausen, and Zürich; the *Vin de Vaud*, and the *Vin de la Côte* of Geneva are esteemed the best Swiss wines. The fruits are pears, apples, cherries, plums, peaches, olives, figs, and lemons.

Animals.] Cattle are plentiful in Switzerland, and form the chief wealth of the inhabitants. The horses are not esteemed. The tame animals are those common to Europe; but there are a few wild animals which are rarely found in any other place. Among these may be mentioned the chamois and the steinbuck, both inhabiting the Alps; but the latter is extremely rare. In some cantons lynxes, wolves, and bears are yet found. Birds of prey are not unfrequent, among which is the *Lammergeyer* or vulture of the Alps, (*Vultur barbatus* L.) which is often known to carry off lambs, and of which the peasants relate incredible stories. Fish are plentiful in the lakes, amongst them we find the *Cyprinus nasus*, the *Coppus*, the *Salmo lavaretus*, the *Salmo Umbla* or *chevalier Ombler*, and the Trat or Ferat.

Minerals.] It might be supposed from the mountainous nature of Switzerland, that minerals should be here found in plenty; but this appears not to be the case. In some of the streams particles of gold occur, and we believe there is a gold-mine wrought in the Valais; mines of silver also have been mentioned, but the quantity of these metals seems to be inconsiderable. Iron is not scarce, particularly in the district called Sargans;

and copper and lead are found in different places. The other mineral productions of Switzerland are coal, nitre, sulphur, rock-crystal, marble, slate, granite, porphyry, porcelain, serpentine, steatite, asbestos, amianthus, jasper, agate, lapis ollaris, feldspar, and tremolite. *Bitumen solidum* occurs in Neufchatel. Mineral waters are found in different places. There are salt-springs in the Vaud.

Agriculture and Rural Industry.] The agriculture of Switzerland is necessarily of a peculiar nature, and on a very confined scale. Cattle, sheep, and goats, constitute the chief wealth and support of the Swiss proprietor, who farms his own small portion of land, being usually no more than his family share of the paternal inheritance. Wherever the nature of the soil permits, agriculture is conducted; but the corn raised in any district never supplies the home-consumption, and some cantons scarcely possess a single field of grain. The best agricultural districts extend from Basle to Geneva, and along the borders of the lake of Constance, and the banks of the Rhine. One great obstacle to the improvement of agriculture in Switzerland arises from the necessary employment of so many hands in herding the cattle during the summer, while the winter offers little opportunity for out-door work. Kasthofer, in a very recent work on the rural economy of Switzerland, also mentions the non-application or injudicious use of manure,—the neglect of the means of increasing the quantity of winter-fodder, of irrigation, and of green crops; and the wretched construction of the ploughs and other instruments of agricultural labour. To procure winter-fodder for the cattle is a most important object in Switzerland. Every blade of grass, therefore, is collected with the greatest care. In places inaccessible to cattle, Mr Malthus informs us, the peasant sometimes makes hay with crampons on his feet. Grass not three inches high is cut in some places three times a year; and in the valleys the fields are shaven as close as a bowling-green.[5] The extent of a pasture is estimated by the number of cows which it maintains; six or eight goats are deemed equal to a cow; but a horse is reckoned as five or six cows, because he roots up the grass. The mountain-pastures are rented at so much per cow's feed, from the 15th of May to the 18th of October. And the cows are hired from the peasants for the same period; at the end of it, both are restored to their owners. In other parts the proprietors of the pastures have the cows; or the proprietor of the cows rent the land. The proceeds of a cow are estimated at £3 or £3 10s. viz. 25s. in summer; and during the time they are kept in the valleys or in the house £2. The Swiss cows yield more milk than those of Lombardy; but after the third generation their milk falls off. In some parts of Switzerland they yield on an average 12 English quarts a-day; and with 40 cows, a cheese of 45 lbs. can be made daily. The Swiss dairies produce great varieties of cheese; the most celebrated is the *Schabzieger*, which is made by the mountaineers of Glarus alone.

Industry and Commerce.] The industry of the Swiss is very great,

[5] The scythes commonly used in Switzerland have light short blades, and we believe are principally of German manufacture. The handles are much bent, and the mower stands tolerably upright. The sweep is not very great. But the Swiss are admirable mowers. Patches of grass are seen on the Alps, growing under ledges of rock, where no cattle could climb, cut as close and as smooth as a dexterous English gardener could shave a grass plot. They put an exquisite edge on their scythes by hammering them out on little anvils kept for the purpose, instead of thinning the edge by a coarse stone, as our mowers do; and their scythes by this treatment consequently last much longer. The operation is performed once in a day or two; and the edge is afterwards still further sharpened by a sort of strap or prepared board, finer than ours.

and enables their rugged country to support a comparatively numerous population. The principal branches of manufacture are cotton and woollen goods, linen, silk, and leather, jewellery ware, and particularly watches. Though in the very centre of Europe, Switzerland is by no means favourably situated for commerce; the surrounding Alps oppose great obstacles to the construction of commercial roads, while the prohibitory systems of the neighbouring States reduce the only trade conducted with them to that of smuggled goods. The balance of commerce is decidedly against the cantons, and many of them have become so poor within the last 10 or 20 years, that emigration has been resorted to by the starving population.

Money.] Accounts are kept in livres and batz; one Swiss livre being 10 batz, and the batz being of the value of three half-pence English money. Each petty State, however, insists on having its separate coinage; so that the French coins pass best throughout the country. The Swiss franc is equal to 1 franc 12 sous of French money.

CHAP. III.—POPULATION—MANNERS AND CUSTOMS—RELIGION—LITERATURE—ESTABLISHMENTS FOR EDUCATION—GOVERNMENT.

Population.] Upwards of one-third of the surface of Switzerland, consisting of Alps and Glaciers, is wholly uninhabitable. We have already given Schoch, Crome, and Hassel's estimates of the population of habitable Switzerland in 1816. Stein in his Geography published in 1826, estimates the population at 1,853,300, and Balbi in his recent *Balance Politique* at 1,980,000. Jacob states the census taken in 1821, to have been 1,783,231; and in 1827, 2,037,030. Of this number about two-thirds speak German; the majority of the remaining third speak French; about 90,000 Italian; and 37,000 Romansh—a corrupted dialect of the Latin which has been supposed to come very near to the colloquial dialect alleged to have been in use among the Romans. Most of the people speak these different languages very ill, especially the Germans, whose dialect in many of the cantons is almost unintelligible to a native of Germany.

Manners and Customs.] The Swiss are in general a robust and handsome race, their labour being such as invigorates without exhausting the human frame. The costumes of Switzerland are simple, and calculated rather for convenience than ostentation, but are not on that account the less graceful. The higher ranks imitate the fashions prevalent in France. The Swiss have preserved many of the original features of their national character, particularly in those cantons which have least intercourse with foreigners. They are brave and honest in a high degree; and notwithstanding their habits of emigration, their attachment to their country is proverbial, and few leave home without the hope in prospect of at least returning to end their days in the home of their childhood. The Swiss, while engaged in foreign service, will often have his whole national sympathies so powerfully awakened by a Swiss air, as to forget a soldier's honour in his longings to revisit his fatherland; and nothing cheers the industrious Swiss pedlar, during his long wanderings through all the towns of Europe, so much as the prospect of returning home and becoming the proprietor of a little smiling cottage on the Engadine, or some other romantic district of his native land. The Swiss dine generally at mid-day, or very soon after. The food of the mountaineers is very simple, usually

consisting of milk, rye-bread, walnut cakes, and goats' flesh. The higher classes generally spend their evenings in little soirees, where cards form the principal amusement; the ladies are in general good domestic characters,—cold, plain, and amiable, knowing little that passes beyond their immediate neighbourhood, and "doomed to live and die," as a traveller has said, "in the place where they were born." One of the worst features in the Swiss character is the extreme jealousy which subsists between the different cantons,—an evil which has affected all small states; as those of ancient Greece and the Italian republics.

Religion.] Stein estimates the number of Catholics in Switzerland at 580,235; the members of the Reformed Church at 1,271,845; the Lutherans at 350; the Anabaptists at 900, and the Jews at 1970. The cantons in which the Catholic faith is predominant, are, Lucerne, Uri, Schweiz, Underwalden, Zug, Friburg, Soleure, Tessino, and Valais. The Protestant territories are Zurich, Berne, Basle, Schaffhausen, Vaud, Neufchatel, and Geneva. In Appenzell, Glarus, Thurgau, Aargau, St Gall, and the Grisons, the population are partly Protestant and partly Catholic, but both parties live together in the greatest harmony. The Catholics negotiated a concordat with the Pope, whose nuncio usually resides at Lucerne or Friburg. Their dioceses are Basle, Lausanne, Sitten, Thur, Constance, Como, and Milan. They possess 190 cloisters, containing 3,500 monks and nuns. The protestant form of church government is presbyterianism; and their symbolical book is the Helvetic confession. The Jews are chiefly located in Aargau.

Literature.] The literature of Switzerland is merged in that of Germany and France; the Italian cantons have none. The French cantons have produced Theodore Beza, Isaac Causabon, Necker, Stahl, J. J. Rousseau, Mallet, Tissot, Pictet, Sismondi, and Decandolle. The German districts claim the grammarians Bodmer and Breitinger; the poets Haller, Gessner, Bronner, Lavater, and Salis; the dull and anti-evangelical theologian Joachim Zollikofer; the pædagogical writers, Pestalozzi and Fellenberg; the historian Muller; the natural historian, Gessner; the medical writers, Paracelsus, and Haller; and the artists Holbein, Graff, and Angelica Kauffmann. Upon the whole, the Swiss, notwithstanding they have some respectable poets and artists, do not appear to possess a particular genius for poetry and the fine arts. The number of journals published weekly, or twice a-week in Switzerland is surprising. Every canton has at least one, and some of them more, besides monthly and other publications.

Establishments for Education.] A good deal has been done in the Protestant cantons for general instruction, and in this respect they greatly surpass the Catholic districts; at the same time it must be confessed that education is much neglected in Switzerland, and that the various seminaries have by no means kept pace with the spirit of the times. Geneva forms an honourable exception to this remark, offering excellent means of public and private instruction; and the Pays de Vaud has also good educationary establishments. Basle is the seat of the only Swiss university, and an excellent Missionary seminary.

Constitution.] The 22 cantons of Switzerland are united into a confederacy for the maintenance of their mutual liberty and independence against all attacks from without, and for the preservation of the public peace and order within. The general business is transacted at a Diet which assembles each year in July, or more frequently, and to which each can-

ton sends one deputy, and which is held alternately at Zurich, Berne, and Lucerne; the chief magistrate of the canton in which the Diet assembles, being president of the Diet that year. Treaties of peace or declarations of war require the assent of three-fourths of the deputies. All other matters are determined by a majority. The cantons contribute to the army and revenue of the confederacy in the following proportion:—

	Contingent.	Contingent.
Zurich, . .	3,700 men.	74,000 Swiss francs.
Berne, . .	5,824	104,080
Lucerne, . . .	1,734	26,010
Uri, . . .	236	1,180
Schweiz, . .	602	3,012
Underwalden, .	382	1,910
Glarus, . .	482	1,615
Zug, . . .	250	1,250
Friburg, . .	1,250	18,600
Soleure, . .	904	13,560
Basle, . .	918	22,950
Schaffhausen, .	466	9,320
Appenzell, . .	972	9,220
St Gall, . .	1,630	39,450
Grisons, . .	1,600	12,000
Aargau, . .	2,410	48,200
Thurgau . .	1,520	22,800
Tessin, . .	1,804	18,040
Vaud, . .	2,964	59,280
Valais, . . .	1,280	9,600
Neufchatel, .	960	24,000
Geneva, . .	880	22,000
	32,768 men.	542,077 francs.

The above military force supplies 2,272 artillery, 1088 light cavalry, 25,199 infantry, 2000 jagers, and several smaller bodies of soldiers. The landwehr, or ordinary militia, amount to 67,516 men. It is calculated that above 30,000 Swiss are employed in the service of foreign States.

CHAP IV.—THE CANTON OF ZURICH.

Physical Features.] THE surface of this canton is undulated and mountainous, with some large valleys and extensive sheets of water, and very picturesque scenery. There are no glaciers or perpetual snow in this canton, the highest mountains being covered with forests and constant verdure. The principal summits are the Allmannskette, the Lägerkette, and the Albikette. The principal rivers are the Rhine and the Reuss; the smaller streams are the Thur, the Töss, the Sihl or Sil, the Glatt, and the Limmath, which latter river is navigable, and flowing through the lake of Zurich, already described, unites with the Aar below Baden. The other lakes are the Greiffensee and the Pfeffikonsee on the E. of Zurich; the Katzensee on the N. W. and the Türlersee on the S. W.

Among the mineral springs are those of Nidel or Nydelbad, the two Geirenbads, Röslibad, and the *bads* or baths of Zollikhof, Arnheim, and Drathschmittlein.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.] The climate is mild, the greatest cold never exceeding 7° 25', and the greatest heat 70° of Fahrenheit. It rains upon an average 100 days in the year. The soil is rendered productive by careful cultivation. The wine is of inferior quality, but the cyder, and *kirschwasser*, or 'cherry-brandy,' are excellent. There are some manufactures of silk and cotton.

Population and Government.] The inhabitants speak a very bad dialect of German, and are, with the exception of two Catholic parishes, of the Reformed religion. The constitution is aristocratic, and the government consists of two councils; the one, consisting of 212 members, exercising the sovereign and legislative power; and the other, consisting of 25 members, the executive. The revenue of Zurich, in 1814, was estimated at 671,857 Swiss francs.

Chief Towns.] The chief town which gives its name to the canton, is situated upon both sides of the Limmath, where it issues from the lake of Zurich, and is said to owe its origin to a nunnery founded by Lewis I. near the site of the ancient Tigurinum. In 1812, it contained 10,475 inhabitants, of whom 7,828 were burgesses; in 1814, it contained 1,175 houses with a population of 10,313; and Stein estimated the population in 1826, at only 10,640. Zurich once possessed some manufactures, which have greatly declined, however, of late years. It is the seat of a pretty good academy, and several scientific societies, and possesses a botanical garden. It has been called the Athens of Switzerland. The New gazette of Zurich, conducted by Paule Usteri, is the best political paper in Switzerland. The celebrated naturalist, Conrad Gessner; the great orientalist, Hottinger; the celebrated theologians, Bullinger, Gualther, Breitinger, Heidegger, and Wolf; the learned Solomon Gessner; the ingenious Lavater, Hans Hirzel, and Pestalozzi, were natives of this city. The library, founded in 1628, contains 40,000 volumes, besides manuscripts, antiquities, and medals.—Horgen on the lake of Zurich, is a town of 3,700 inhabitants.—Vadenschyle, on the same lake, contains 3,460 inhabitants.—Uster on the Aa has a population of 3,150 souls.—Near the village of Kyburg on the Töss, the old and romantic castle of the family of Kyburg appears on the top of a high hill.—Bulach is a town of 3000 inhabitants.—Winterthur, a town of 3,250 inhabitants, possesses a gymnasium and public library.—Rheinau on the Rhine is a catholic village of 600 inhabitants, and possesses a cloister on an island in the river.

CHAP. V.—THE CANTON OF BERNE.

Physical Features.] This canton is the largest in Switzerland. The southern part, called *Oberlande*, is almost a continuous scene of glaciers and alps, intersected by deep valleys, and presenting the wildest scenery. The northern part is fertile and well-cultivated. The principal ridges are the Bernese Alps, in the Oberlande, in which the loftiest alpine summits occur; the Jura in the W. and the Jorat or *Jurtengebirge*, which commences here. The principal river is the Aar. The other streams are the Emmat or greater Emmen, the Sanen, and the Kander. The Halle and Doubs, two French rivers, take their rise here. Besides these rivers

innumerable streams rush down from the mountains towards the principal rivers, frequently forming, in their headlong descent, magnificent cascades, such as that of the Reichenbach in the Haslithale, 150 feet, and the Staubbach, at Lauterbrunnen, 1,013 feet in altitude. The lakes of Brienze, Thun, Biel, and part of Neufchatel, are in this canton. The principal mineral springs are those of Weissenburgerbad, Blumensteinerbad, the bath of Neuenhaus at Berne, Sommerhausbad, Langnauerbad, and Gurnigelbad.

Climate and Productions.] The climate is very rough in the S. As we approach towards the N. it becomes gradually milder, and the vine begins to be cultivated near the lake of Thun. The dairy and farming operations in the N. are well-conducted; the cheeses of Berne are celebrated on account of their size and quality; the cattle are excellent; and wine and fruit form a principal article of exportation. The principal manufactures are linen, woollen goods, and watches. The Bernese roads are excellent, and wider than those of England.

Population and Government.] There are about 40,000 Catholics, 900 Mennonites, and 300 Lutherans and Jews in this canton; but the great bulk of the Bernese are of the Reformed Church, and speak a very abominable dialect of German. French, however, is generally spoken by the higher classes in the capital. The government is highly aristocratic, and has reduced the peasantry of the Oberlande almost to the condition of serfs. The constitution is very complicated. The legislative or sovereign council consists of 299 members, 200 of whom are patricians, and 99 country members, and the executive of 27. Berne is one of the wealthiest cantons of the confederacy, but we have no statement of its revenue on which we can depend. The aristocratic feelings prevalent in this canton, have, of late, almost threatened Switzerland with a civil war. The Bernese made great efforts at the congress of Vienna to recover the Pays de Vaud and Argovia, and to deprive these cantons of their independence; but the allied sovereigns happily refused to listen to their representations.

City and Towns.] The chief city which gives its name to the canton is situated on an elevated peninsula, formed by the rapid river Aar, and is said, by Simond, to contain only 12,000 inhabitants, though Stein estimates their number at 18,000; in 1765 it was ascertained to be 13,681. The magnificent slope between the town and the river is in some places covered with turf, supported in others by lofty terraces planted with trees, and commanding beautiful views, over the surrounding rich country, towards the high Alps beyond it. An avenue of lime-trees conducts the traveller into Berne. On entering it he feels as if he were entering an ancient and great city. It is a republic, says Simond, yet it looks kingly, something of Roman majesty appears in its lofty terraces; in the massy arches on each side of the streets; in the abundance of water flowing night and day into the gigantic basins; in its magnificent avenues of trees. In short, of all the first-sight impressions about Berne, that of its being a Roman town would be nearer right than any other. The buildings are of a gray coloured free stone. The public edifices are elegant, particularly the cathedral, founded in 1471. Berne contains a school or college of considerable celebrity, and was the birth-place of the poet and physiologist Haller. Here, as at Basle, there is a 'Dance of Death' painted on the walls of a convent by Manuel; and in the arsenal are preserved the figure and armour of the patriot Tell. The exclusive spirit of *coterie* is said to be still more marked here than at Geneva, and political jealousies are more violent.

Thun, on the lake of the same name, is a town of 2,685 inhabitants, with a military academy.—Biel or Bienne, on the lake of Biel, contains nearly 3000 inhabitants. It is eminently a Swiss town. Gateways, fortified with towers, insersect the streets, which are composed of strange-looking houses, built on arcades, like those of bridges, and variously painted,—blue with yellow borders, red with white, or purple and grey, with projecting iron balconies, highly wrought and of a glossy black, and bright green windows. The public fountains are adorned with figures which sufficiently characterize the respective periods of their construction: those of the 15th century having bearded warriors; those of the 16th, angels with wings, and demons with tails. Watchmen perambulate the streets all night, proclaiming, in German recitative, the hour and the state of the weather.—In the neighbourhood of Lauterbrunnen are several remarkable caves, and the magnificent glaciers of the soaring Jungfrau, the summit of which, formerly deemed inaccessible, was lately ascended on this side by two natives of Berne named Mayor. The valley of Oberhasli in Oberlande, is one of the most remarkable in Switzerland; it is surrounded by appalling glaciers, and contains fine imposing cataracts. Its inhabitants derive their descent from a small colony of Swedish settlers and still speak a dialect resembling the Swedish.

CHAP. VI.—THE CANTON OF LUCERNE.

Physical Features.] Stosch has calculated the superficial extent of this canton at 36 German square miles; perhaps the calculation which has been made by others of 31 square miles is nearer the truth. The northern districts of this canton present fertile plains and extensive fields; the southern part, or the *Entlibuch* as it is called, partakes of the scenery of the adjacent southern district of Berne. In the N. the *Mons Pilatus*[a] offers a singular curiosity. At the elevation of 5,000 feet, and in the most perpendicular part of the mountain, is observed, in the middle of a cavern hollowed in a black rock, a colossal statue, which appears to be of white stone. It presents the standing figure of a man in drapery, leaning one elbow on a pedestal, and with one leg crossed over the other; "and is so regularly formed," says Coxe, "that it cannot be a *lusus naturæ*." This statue is called Dominic by the peasants, who frequently accost it from the only place in which it can be seen; and when their voices are reechoed from the cavern, they will say in the simplicity of their hearts: 'Dominic has answered us.' In order to bring down to the lake of Lucerne the wood from a large pine-forest, on the skirts of Mount Pilatus, £9000 were expended in erecting a slide of singular construction. Its length is about 44,000 English feet, and the difference of its level at its two extremities is about 2600 feet. It is a wooden trough, five feet broad and four deep. The large pines, with their branches cut off, are placed, one at a time, in the slips, and, descending by their own gravity, they acquire such an impetus in their progress through the first part of the slide, that they perform their journey of 8 miles and a quarter in six minutes, and, in wet weather, in three minutes. The principal river is the Reuss, which receives the Entlen from the Entlibuch. The Wigger, and Sur or Suren, flow to-

[a] Its proper name is Mons Pileatus, or the cloud-capped mountain, which the common people have corrupted to Pilatus, from Pontius Pilate, who, they pretend, came to drown himself in the lake of the Brundlen Alp.

wards the Aar. Besides the lake of Lucerne, there are here the Mauersee, the Rothsee, the Valdecker, and the Heideckersee. The climate is temperate and healthy, and more corn is grown than supplies the home consumption.

Government and Revenue.] The government is aristocratic; the legislative power being vested in a council of 100, and the executive in a committee of 36, chosen from the council. The president is called the *Schultheitz.* The revenue is small, perhaps not exceeding 100,000 florins, and the Catholic clergy consume two-thirds of it.

City and Towns.] The city of Lucerne, situated on the lake of the same name, contains, according to Stein, 6,855 inhabitants. Here is shown a singularly exact model of part of Switzerland, executed in relief by general Pfyffer, on a scale of about a square foot to $2\frac{1}{4}$ English miles. Its centre is the lake of Lucerne, its length is $20\frac{1}{2}$, and its breadth 12 feet. Near the village of Sempach, on the lake of the same name, is a chapel built to commemorate the splendid victory obtained by the Swiss over the Austrians in 1386, and in which an anniversary sermon is preached every year on the 9th of June.

CHAP. VII.—THE CANTON OF URI.

Physical Features—the Gotthard.] Schöpf estimates the superficial surface of this canton at 24 German square miles; according to Meyer's chart, published in 1804, its area is nearer 34 square miles. The whole canton consists of the two valleys of the Reuss and the Urseren. The most remarkable Alp is the St Gotthard, over which one of the main roads to Italy is led. The summit of this passage is a small plain 6,790 English feet above the level of the Mediterranean. The chain of mountains which immediately surround this place, takes the general appellation of St Gotthard, but each summit has its own particular name. On the N. is the Ursino; on the E. are the Sella, Prosa, and Surecha; on the S. the naked rocks of the Val Maggia; and on the W. the Fieudo, the Petina, and the Locendro. No spot in Europe gives birth to so many noble rivers as this does. From it the Reuss flows towards the N.; the three sources of the Rhine towards the E.; the Tessino towards the S.; and the Rhone towards the W.[7]

Government.] The sovereign power in this canton is in the hands of the people; every male above 20 years of age is a member of the general assembly, which is held once a year to choose the officers of the executive department. The revenue is small, there being almost no taxes, and little trade; yet it is surprising how three such poor cantons as Lucerne, Uri, and Underwalden, can raise sums sufficient for the execution of their share of the superb carriage-road now executing over the St Gotthard. The expenses of Uri already amount to 300,000 francs for this road, from Amsteg to Geschenen; and it is estimated that it will cost this canton 400,000 francs more.

Towns.] The chief town is Altorf, with 3,000 inhabitants. In the

[7] The greatest heat at the summit of this pass in 1784, were $61\frac{1}{2}°$, the greatest cold $8\frac{1}{2}°$ of Fahrenheit. The average state of the thermometer at nine in the morning was 28°, and at midday 52°. In the same year it snowed during some part of 118 days, rained 78, thundered 22, and was serene 87 days.

village of Burglen there is a chapel called Tell's chapel. Allinghausen was the native-place of Walter Furst, one of Tell's gallant compatriots.

CHAP. VIII.—THE CANTON OE SCHWEIZ.

A HIGH ridge of mountains runs through Schweiz or Schyoytz in the form of a crescent. In the valleys the soil is tolerably fertile. The principal rivers are the Linth, the Sihl, and the Mütte or Mutta. The climate is milder than that of Uri; but there is little agriculture, almost the whole population being engaged in herding cattle. The constitution is a pure democracy, in which every male above 16 years of age has a voice. In this canton the land is not exposed to that minute subdivision which prevails in some other cantons, as the management of it is by law given exclusively to the younger son.—The borough of Schwyz or Schweiz has a population of 4,798 inhabitants.—The Benedictine chapel of Maria Ensiedeln, situated near the Sihl, was visited in 1817 by no fewer than 30,000 pilgrims. Kusnacht, near the spot where the tyrant Gessler fell by the hands of Tell, contains 1560 inhabitants.—Gersau, once an independent republic, the smallest in Europe, contains 160 houses, and 1294 inhabitants.

CHAP. IX.—THE CANTON OF UNDERWALDEN.

THIS is one of the finest Alpine districts of Switzerland. The climate is temperate and serene in the lower regions. The productions are fruit, chesnuts, and potatoes which serve the population instead of corn. The rearing of cattle is the only employment of the Underwaldens, who are a simple but superstitious race of people, fanatically attached to the Catholic faith, and extremely ignorant. The government is purely democratic, every male being a member of the general assembly at 20 years of age. Sarnen, the chief borough of this canton, contained 2789 inhabitants in 1743.—Engelberg is the seat of an ancient Benedictine Abbey, founded in the 9th century, which possesses a college, and a library of 8,000 volumes.

CHAP X.—THE CANTON OF GLARUS.

GLARUS consists of two valleys lying between lofty ridges of glaciers. The principal river is the Linth. A canal is executing between the Wallenstatter lake and that of Zurich. This canton abounds in slate-quarries; and formerly supplied Britain with writing slates. The inhabitants are a tall, vigorous, and industrious race of Germans, of whom seven-eighths are Catholics. The constitution is nearly the same as that of Schweiz. Glarus, the chief borough, at the foot of the Glärnisch, contains 3000 inhabitants, and is a place of animated industry.—Näfels is celebrated as having been the scene of the battle in 1388.

CHAP. XI.—THE CANTON OF ZUG.

THIS is wholly a mountainous district, with a few patches of fertile land in the valleys. The climate, though Alpine, allows of the cultivation of

the vine. The constitution is democratic, and the revenue is trifling. Zug, on the lake of the same name, contains 2500 inhabitants.—Morgarten is celebrated for the battles fought there in 1345 and 1798.

CHAP. XII.—THE CANTON OF FRYBURG.

The canton of Fryburg or Freiburg is very mountainous, but contains some large plains. The principal river is the Saane. The inhabitants are of German descent, and German is the official language; but throughout a great part of the country a French *patois* is spoken. The Jesuits have great influence here, and possess a large college at Fryburg, with 1500 students; the government is aristocratic; and the inhabitants are an ignorant and discontented race. Fryburg, the chief city of the canton, is remarkable on account of its singular situation, which is thus described by Coxe: "It stands partly in a small plain, partly on bold declivities on a ridge of rugged rocks, half-encircled by the river Saane; and is so entirely concealed by the circumjacent hills, that the traveller scarcely catches the least glimpse, until, from the overhanging eminence, he has at one glance a view of the whole town. The fortifications, which consist of high stone walls and towers, enclose a circumference of about four miles; within which space the eye comprehends a singular mixture of houses, rocks, thickets, and meadows, varying instantly from wild to agreeable, from the bustle of a town to the solitude of the deepest retirement. The Saane winds in such a serpentine manner as to form, in its course, within the space of two miles, five obtuse angles, between which the intervening parts of the current are parallel to each other. On all sides, the ascent to the town is extremely steep: in many places the streets even pass over the roof of the houses. Many of the edifices are raised in regular gradations, like the seats of an amphitheatre; and many overhang the edge of a precipice in such a manner, that, on looking down, a weak head would be apt to turn giddy." In 1811, the number of houses in Fryburg was 1079, and the inhabitants 6,461.—Morat or Murten, on the lake of the same name, was the scene of a battle on the 22d of June, 1476. The French revolutionary army, in 1798, destroyed the monument which had been erected to commemorate a victory so dear to the liberties of Switzerland; but we believe an obelisk was erected in 1822, to perpetrate the remembrance of the gallant and successful resistance which the Swiss patriots here offered to the duke of Burgundy.

CHAP. XIII.—THE CANTON OF SOLEURE.

The canton of Soleure or Solothurn is of a very irregular shape, and is intersected by branches of the Jura. The principal river is the Aar. The government is a mixture of aristocracy and democracy; and the revenue is said to amount to 180,000 florins. The town of Soleure contains 4,115 inhabitants, occupying 533 houses. There is here a magnificent cathedral, a library of 8,000 volumes, a monastery of Capuchins, and 3 nunneries. Olten is a town of 1,061 houses, with 6,530 inhabitants.

CHAP. XIV.—THE CANTON OF BASLE.

Physical Features.] The mountains of Basle or Basel belong to the Jura. The principal river is the Rhine, to which this country supplies numerous small tributaries. There are no large lakes, but several mineral springs.

Climate and Productions.] The climate is pure and healthy, and the country is well-sheltered by the heights of the Jura. The land is well cultivated, and fruit is grown in great quantity. The salmon-fisheries on the Rhine are very productive, and the manufactures and commerce of the country are animated.

Population and Government.] In 1774 the population of this canton amounted to 38,625; and in 1796 it had increased to 42,193. The government is a mixture of aristocracy and democracy. The legislative council consists of 150, and the executive of 25 members. The revenue is considerable, this canton being one of the wealthiest in the confederacy.

Chief City and Towns.] Basle, the largest city of Switzerland, is situated upon the Rhine, by which it is divided into two parts, united by a bridge 600 feet in length. The most extensive part of the city is that which is situated on what is generally called the left bank of the Rhine, or on that side which is towards Switzerland. The cathedral, which contains the tomb of the celebrated Erasmus, is a Gothic building of considerable elegance. The council-hall is well built; it is believed that Holbein painted three of the walls, only one of which has escaped the ravages of time. Basle has a library of 28,000 volumes, and is the seat of a University which was founded in 1495. The elder and younger Bartorf, so famous in the 17th century for their knowledge of Hebrew and Rabbinical learning, were professors in this University, as also the celebrated James, John, and Daniel Bonnouille. On the walls of a church-yard here the famous *Dance of Death* was painted by Holbein after the disaster of a plague anterior to his time. In 1779 Basle contained 2,120 houses, and 15,010 inhabitants; in 1816 it contained 2,200 houses, with 16,200 inhabitants; and its population was estimated by Stein in 1826 at 16,420. Basle was the birth-place of the philosopher Iselin, the mathematician Euler, and the painter Holbein. It is 174 miles N. by E. of Geneva, and 250 E. by S. of Paris; in long. 7° 30′ E., and lat. 47° 33′ 34″ N. —St Jacob, in the circle of the Under Aemter, is celebrated as having been the scene of the heroic struggle of 1644.—Augst or Basel Augst, at the influx of the Ergolz into the Rhine, has two paper-mills and some manufactures. It was the *Augusta Rauracorum* of the Romans.

CHAP. XV.—THE CANTON OF SCHAFFHAUSEN.

A RIDGE of mountains called Randen separates this canton on one side from Baden; but they only rise 1,200 feet above the level of the Rhine, which is the principal river, and here forms the celebrated cataract of Schaffhausen. The inhabitants, with the exception of one parish, Catholic, are of the Reformed creed; they are of German descent, and more nearly resemble the Suabians than the other Swiss. Schaffhausen on the Rhine, the birth-place of the historian John Muller, has a population of 7,000 inhabitants.—St

Stein, at the outflow of the Rhine from the lake of Constance, is a very industrious town.

CHAP. XVI.—THE CANTON OF APPENZELL.

Physical Features.] The canton of Appenzell lies wholly within that of St Gall. The whole country lies high; and the soil is stony and rugged, intersected only by a few mountain-streams.

Inhabitants and Government.] The Appenzellers are an industrious race of German descent. It was early divided into two independent republics,—the *Outer-Rhoden* and *Inner-Rhoden.* Of these the first, which is the largest, was a Catholic, the other a Protestant State. The foundation of the constitution was the sovereignty of the people; and this idea was realized in practice every year when the whole male population of each district, above the age of 16, met to enact laws, elect officers, and form alliances. Both districts still retain their independent democratic assembly and constitution; but they are considered as forming one canton in the confederacy, and send one deputy alternately to the Diet. By all accounts, the Catholic district is inferior to that of the Protestants in wealth, industry, and cleanliness.

Chief Towns.] Appenzell, in the Inner Rhoden, contains 3,000 inhabitants, a monastery, and a nunnery.—Herisau, in the Outer Rhoden, is a place of considerable commerce. In 1734 it had 4,816 inhabitants; the population is now estimated at 7,000.

CHAP. XVII.—THE CANTON OF St GALL.

The extreme uncertainty attending the admeasurements of foreign geographers eminently appears in the various calculations which they have given of the superficial contents of this canton; one geographer estimating it at 38½, another at 48, and another at 52 German square miles. The Rhine is the principal river. Manufactures have declined here of late, but there is still a considerable trade in cotton goods conducted at St Gall. The inhabitants are of German descent; and the government is a mixture of aristocracy and democracy. St Gall is a town of nearly 10,000 inhabitants.—Rorschach on the lake of Constance, a town of 2,000 inhabitants, conducts an extensive trade in corn.—Pfeffers possesses a warm spring of the temperature of 99° 5′ Fahrenheit and a large bathing establishment.

CHAP. XVIII.—THE CANTON OF THE GRISONS.

The *Bündten, Grandbünden,* or canton of the Grisons, is mountainous, intersected with romantic valleys, and several rivers, of which the principal are the Rhine, the Inn flowing through the three valleys of the Engadin, the Albula, the Maira, and the Muesa. In the lower region, on the banks of the Rhine, the vine and chesnut prosper; but in the more elevated districts the temperature is very severe. The population is very thin compared with the extent of the country, being only about 75,000, of whom 26,500 are Germans, 10,000 Italians, and 36,700 of the tribe who speak Romansh. It must be recollected, however, that above 1,500 square miles of surface in this canton

are wholly Alpine and uninhabitable. The constitution is democratic. The Catholic town of Disentiz contains 1,040 inhabitants.—Chur, or Coire, on the Plessur, with 3,350 inhabitants, is the principal town. Malerin Angelica Kauffmann was a native of this town.—Stalla or Bevio is a little town which conducts a considerable commerce of transit between the Engadin and Italy.—Sils, on the Silsersee or Lago di Siglio, is remarkable for the wildness of its surrounding scenery.

CHAP. XIX.—THE CANTON OF AARGAU.

The Aar, from which the canton of Aargau or Argovia takes its name, intersects the country from S.W. to N.E., and the Jura runs alongst its left banks in the same direction. The climate is mild, and agriculture is well-conducted; but goitres and even cretins occur in some parts of this district. About 76,000 of the inhabitants are Protestants, and 1,700 Jews; the rest are Catholics. The educationary establishments are very good; and there are several societies for useful purposes. The revenue is about 500,000 Swiss francs. Aarau, the chief town, contains 427 houses, with 3,000 inhabitants.—Baden, on the Limmath, has a warm spring of the temperature of 115° 25′ Fahrenheit; and the village of Schintznach, on the Aar, contains another warm spring of 91° temperature. Near the latter village are the ruins of the castle of Habsburg, the ancient seat of the Austrian family.—Königsfelden, formerly an abbey with a chapel, founded in 1308, the spot where the emperor Albrecht was killed by his nephew John of Suabia, is now converted into an asylum for lunatics.—Zofingen, a small town of 1,680 inhabitants, on the Wigger, contains a library founded in 1695, in which are preserved several MSS. of the early Swiss reformers.—Zurzach, a small village on the Rhine, has two annual fairs, much frequented by German and Italian merchants.

CHAP. XX.—THE CANTON OF THURGAU.

This district rises in elevation towards the lake of Constance, but nowhere exceeds 2,500 feet. The climate is temperate and soil fertile. Wine, fruit, flax, and oats, are grown in considerable quantities, and there are some manufactures. The inhabitants are of German origin, and speak a Suabian dialect. The Protestants greatly exceed the Catholics in number; but the latter have 5 monasteries and 6 nunneries in this canton. The constitution is democratic. The chief town is Frauenfeld, on the Murg, with 1,800 inhabitants.—Pfyn, on the Thur, with 533 inhabitants, marks the site of a Roman camp.

CHAP. XXI.—THE CANTON OF TESSINO.

This is one of the most magnificent districts in Switzerland. It consists of deep valleys, which lie much lower than any others in Switzerland, but everywhere present the most lively and frequently sublime scenery. The Alps crowned with eternal ice and snow run along the W.N.W. and N.E. The principal river is the Tessin, or Tessino, or Ticino, which flows from the Gotthard to the Lago Maggiore, of which only the northern point be-

longs to Switzerland. The climate approaches nearly to that of Italy in the low districts, and produces melons, olives, capons, tobacco, and even silk. Agriculture might be successfully carried on, if the peasantry did not emigrate in such numbers. The whole population are Italian in language, features, and manners; in some districts an Italian corrupted with German is spoken, but the language becomes purer on approaching the lakes. The government is democratic; the people are lively and ingenious, but sunk in Catholic superstition. Lauis or Lugano, a town of 3,444 inhabitants, Bellenz or Bellenzona, and Luggarus or Locarno, are alternately the seat of the supreme government.

CHAP. XXII.—THE CANTON DE VAUD.

The Waadt, de Vaud, or Pays de Vaud, is one of the finest cantons of Switzerland, abounding in fertile plains and valleys, and presenting some high mountains. The rivers flow towards the Mediterranean and German ocean. The climate is mild and healthy, and this beautiful country attracts visitors from all quarters of the globe. The inhabitants are of Burgundian origin, and speak French; the common people use a *patois*. There are a number of schools, and a college at Lausanne. The government is democratic. The chief town is Lausanne. This city is remarkable for its romantic situation. It is built upon elevated ground, to which the ascent is so steep, that it is in some places almost inaccessible to any kind of carriage. Foot-passengers ascend to the higher part of the town by steps. The prospect from this place is described as being extremely beautiful. It includes the lake Geneva, and great part of the soft beauties of the Pays de Vaud, contrasted with the Chablais, of which the appearance is rugged and wild. Lausanne, before the Reformation, was the see of a Catholic bishop; the cathedral is a Gothic edifice of considerable magnificence. The number of inhabitants is upwards of 9,000. Avenches, or Wiflisburg, is a small town of 1,100 inhabitants. It marks the site of 'levell'd Aventicum,' the capital of the ancient Helvetians, which was destroyed by Aulus Cæcinna A. D. 71.—Grandson or Gransee, on the lake of Neufchatel, was the scene of a battle in 1476.—Vevay or Vivis, on the lake of Lucerne, with 3,786 inhabitants, is a beautiful little town. Iverdun or Ifferden, a town on the lake of Neufchatel, is celebrated on account of Pestalozzi's admirable educationary establishment.

CHAP. XXIII.—THE CANTON OF VALAIS.

This country is entirely surrounded by the loftiest ridges of the Alps, which, in the N. W., leave only one small pass through which the Rhone flows, and continues its course through a wide valley towards the lake of Geneva. The Bernese Alps run along the W.; the Lepontine Alps on the E.; and the Pennine on the S. Other ridges intersect the country. The principal rivers are the Rhone, the Lenza, the Saltina, the Visp, the Dranse, and the Pissevache, which comes down from Mount Buet, and forms one of the most beautiful cataracts in Switzerland. The climate varies according to the elevation, but is mildest in the W. The unwholesome air in the marshy valleys occasions frequent fevers, and is probably also the cause of cretinism, which is found more frequently in the Valais than elsewhere.

The people are extremely poor, but raise a considerable quantity of wine and fruit. Among the minerals found here are rock crystals from 50 to 1,400 pounds weight. In the whole Upper Valais, a corrupted German dialect is spoken; in the Under Valais, French; and on the borders of Italy, a bad Italian. The religion is Catholic, and the people, especially in the Under Valais, are wretchedly ignorant. The constitution is democratic. Sien or Sitten, the ancient *Sedunum*, is the chief town of the Upper or Haut Valais. It is built partly on the right bank of the Rhone, and partly on the river Sitten. It contains 300 houses, and 2,500 inhabitants. Brieg, or Brüg, one of the handsomest towns of the Haut Valais, is situated on the Saltina, opposite to the base of the Simplon. A road from Glüs or Brigg, over the Simplon, to Domo d'Ossola, a distance of 14 leagues, was planned by Napoleon, in 1801, and finished in 1805 at the joint expense of France and Italy, and under the superintendance on the Haut Valais side of French engineers, and on the Italian side by the Cardinal Giovanni Fabbroni. Its breadth throughout was 25 Parisian feet; the number of bridges thrown across the rocks was 50; and so gradual on both sides of the mountains was the inclination of the road that to drag the wheels even of a heavy carriage was needless. This road, however, has been destroyed by order of the Sardinian goverment, in order to strengthen and secure their frontier, so that it is no longer passable. The little village of Simplon is situated 4,548 Parisian or 4,851 English feet above the level of the Mediterranean. Martinach or Martigny, seated at the entrance of the great valley of the Rhone, where the roads from France, Italy, and the Vale of Chamouni meet, was not long ago nearly destroyed by a sudden inundation of the Dranse.

CHAP. XXIV.—THE CANTON OF NEUFCHATEL.

THREE ridges of hills parallel with the Jura on the W. run through this country, which rises gradually, like an amphitheatre, from the lake of Neufchatel on the E. which is 1430 feet above the level of the sea, to the height of 3,840 feet. The rivers are small. The lakes have been already described. The population are of Burgundian origin, and speak French.

Government.] Neufchatel, by a very singular arrangement, stands under the sovereignty of the king of Prussia as an hereditary principality, while, at the same time, it forms a canton of the Swiss confederacy, and the Prussian king, who enjoys only the executive power, is obliged to swear to the constitution of this little country. The legislative power is vested in a representative assembly. This place contains the tomb of Favel the celebrated reformer, and the predecessor of Calvin at Geneva. The population of the principality of Neufchatel and Valangin has wonderfully increased: being in 1752, only 28,017, of whom 4,318 were aliens; in 1784, 31,576, of whom 9,704 were aliens; and in 1826, according to Stein, 52,000.

Chief Towns.] Neuenburg or Neufchatel, on the lake of the same name, contains 4,715 inhabitants. The principality of Valangin contains about 5,640 inhabitants, of whom 380 live in the small town of the same name. The town of La Chaux de Fond, in the valley of the Jura, contains 5,920 inhabitants, 500 of whom are employed in watch-making.

CHAP. XXV.—THE CANTON OF GENEVA.

Physical Features.] This canton does not contain any very high mountains, but the whole district is considerably elevated above the level of the sea. The soil is dry and sandy, and not particularly fertile, furnishing only six months' consumption for the population. The climate is mild, but exposed to sharp and cold winds, and the winter is sometimes very severe. The 'arrowy Rhone' is the principal river, which is here, says Lord Byron, of a blue colour, "to a depth I have never seen equalled in water, salt or fresh, except in the Mediterranean and Archipelago."

Population, Religion, and Government.] The Helvetian Almanack estimated the population of this canton in 1817 at 40,000. It now exceeds 42,000, of whom 24,600 live in the city of Geneva. French is the language of the country, but the lower classes use a *patois* dialect. The majority of the inhabitants are of the Reformed church, whose pastors here amount to 25, 14 of whom are stationed within the city. The Church of Geneva is interesting to every protestant as having been the cradle of some of the leading reformers, but it would appear that the successors of Calvin and Turretin have essentially departed from the orthodox doctrines of their predecessors, and have almost ranged themselves under the banners of Socinianism,—a fact which is the more deeply to be regretted, as many youth from different parts of Europe, particularly from the reformed churches of France, are sent here to attend the theological classes of the University, whose chairs are almost exclusively filled by members of the *venerable Compagnie des pasteurs* of the Geneva church. The government is a mixture of aristocracy and democracy; but the influence of Austria is felt so powerfully here, that the Senate have in many instances been compelled to order foreigners, who were obnoxious to that power, instantly to quit their territory. The spirit of the people however is good, and well evinced on every opportunity. The revenue is not exactly known.

City of Geneva.] Geneva is situated in north lat. 46° 12′ 15″, and in east long. 60° on the lake of the same name, where the river Rhone issues from it. This river divides the city into two parts of unequal extent. The houses are generally well-built, but are frequently too lofty; and the arcades of wood; raised in some parts to a considerable height, impart to many of the streets a gloomy appearance. In other respects, the appearance of the city is neat, though it is very close built. The public buildings are the Hotel de Ville, the arsenal, the college, the public library containing, according to Ebal 50,000 volumes, to the use of which all the citizens have a right, the hospital, the theatre, and the cathedral. The college has 22 professors; and, according to Ebal, about 600 students; there are usually above 800 boys attending the high schools in this city. The Genevese carry on some manufactures of woollen, muslin, chintz, silk, and porcelain; but their great occupation is watch-making, which employs near 7000 persons; and a great part of the continent is supplied with watches from this place. The making of mathematical, surgical, and other instruments, jewellery, and toys, is also carried on to some extent. Public affairs are managed by the great council of 250 members, and by the smaller council of 28, the latter being for the executive part. The taxation of the city is very trifling. There is a sort of income tax to which every man of property contributes, and

a very small tax on horses and carriages.[7] The Genevese are a highly literary people, and perhaps no town on the continent affords greater facilities to a man of literary habits. So early as 1478, there were printers at Geneva. The book-trade has ever since been very flourishing here, and many works which the authors durst not publish in France, have issued from the presses of this city. Of the multitude of eminent scholars and writers that Geneva has produced, it will be sufficient to mention the names of Diodati, Tronchin, the three Turetines, Casaubon, Abauzit, Spon, Rousseau, Bonnet, Le Sage, De-Luc, Senebier, the two Saussures, Pictet, Mallet, Necker, and his daughter Madame de Stael Holstein, Huber the blind naturalist, and the celebrated painters Bonnet, Petitot, and Arland. The environs of Geneva are very beautiful. A voyage round the beautiful lake, which Addison states to have taken him nearly five days to make with a pretty fair wind, is now with ease and certainty performed in one.

Authorities.] Coxe's Travels in Switzerland, 3 vols. 8vo. 1781–1792. —Norrmann, Geogr. statist. Darstellung des Schweizerlandes. Hamburg, 1795–8, 4 vols. 8vo.—Beaumont's Travels through the Lepontine Alps, fol. 1800.—Planta's History of the Helvetic Confederacy, 2 vols. 4to. 1800.—C. Cambry voy. pittoresque en Suisse, etc. Paris, 1801, 8vo.— Körner kurze Erdbeschreibung der Schweiz. Winterthur, 1805, 8vo.— Usteri, Handbuch der Schweiz. Staatsrechts. Aarau, 1815, 8vo.—Geogr. Darstellung der Schweiz in tabellarischer Form von Conr. Schoch, 1818, fol.—Simond's Journal of a Tour and Residence in Switzerland, 2 vols. 8vo. 1822.—Voyage dans les Petits Cantons, et dans les Alpes Rhetiennes. Par M. Kasthofer. Traduit de l'Allemand. Paris, 1827.—C. F. Weiland, milit. top. Charte der Schweiz in 24 sectionen. Weimar, 1816–19.— Charte von der Schweiz. Zurich, 1815, bei Füssli.—Ebel's Geognostic Chart. Zurich, 1805.

[7] The expense of a house, with a garden and piece of land, within a mile of the gates, including also the keeping of a caleche and pair of horses, for a gentleman, his lady, two children, and three servants, does not, as I was assured, exceed L.300 a-year; and with this he is enabled to receive his friends occasionally and in a respectable style. To proceed from a family establishment to a bachelor's *pension*, I was told that a person at Petit Saccones has a sleeping-room to himself, and his breakfast, dinner, tea, and supper with the family, for 500 francs (L.20 16s. 8d.) per annum.—*S. W. Stevenson's Travels in* 1825.

THE NETHERLANDS.

From the teeming womb of Time many events arise, deeply affecting the moral and political state of the human race, and strongly evincing how little of futurity is known to the most sagacious observer. Of these unexpected evolutions in the affairs of nations, the union of the Austrian Netherlands and the Dutch Republic into an independent sovereignty for the House of Orange, to the utter confusion and disappointment of the Louvestein faction, is one which could not have been anticipated at the era of the French revolution. The Dutch Republic, after having cast itself into the arms of republican France, was soon after degraded into a petty kingdom, and finally into an insignificant province of a wide and extended empire. But no sooner had the battle of Leipsic turned the tide of conquest against Napoleon, than the national spirit of the Dutch awoke to a sense of their political degradation,—a revolution was effected,—the banished Stadtholder was recalled,—the rights of the nation asserted,—and Holland with Belgium declared an independent kingdom, the extent and boundaries of which were settled at the congress of Vienna, and subsequently enlarged by the peace of Paris, on the 20th of November 1815.

Boundaries and Extent.] The kingdom of the United Netherlands is bounded by the German ocean on the N.W. and N.; by Hanover and Prussia on the E.; and by France on the S.W.[1] From the southern frontier of Luxemburg, in 49° 25′, to the northern extremity of the province of Gröningen, in 53° 25′ N. Lat. Its extreme length is four degrees, or 278 British miles. The breadth is various, owing to the irregularity of its configuration. In the northern division, the breadth from the Ems to the sea, is not above 80 British miles. From the N.W. point of the

[1] Its boundary on the side of France, commences on the sea-shore, 5 British miles to the N.E. of Dunkirk, and runs along the French frontier in a N.W. and S.E. direction, as far as the S.E. limit of the grand duchy of Luxemburg, for the space of 220 British miles. On the side of the Prussian dominions, the boundary-line commences at the town of Syrck, where the Moselle leaves the French territory, on the confines of Lorraine and Luxemburg; runs along the right bank of the Moselle, till its confluence with the Sour; thence along that river in a direction almost meridional, leaving St Viet to the E.; it then intersects the eastern quarter of the bishopric of Liege; and passing to the W. of Malmedy, cuts the eastern division of Limburg, running between the city of Limburg on the W., and the town of Eupin on the E. Thence it runs till it reaches the point of contact of the three old departments of the Ourthe, the Lower Meuse, and the Roer, leaving Aix la Chapelle and Rolduc on the E.; it then follows the line which separates the departments of the Lower Meuse and the Roer, till it reaches the river Worm; thence it passes in a western direction along the line which separates the department of the Lower Meuse from the department of the Roer on the N., and passing to the south of Hillensberg, (which belongs to Prussia,) it remounts to the N., pursuing a course nearly meridional. Passing to the E. of Roermonde and Venloo, which belong to the Dutch, it runs along the right bank of the Meuse, till it reaches the old Dutch frontier near Mook, below Genap; thence it crosses from the Meuse to the Waal, in the quarter of Nimeguen, and then crossing that branch of the Rhine which runs by Arnheim, it runs in an eastern, and then in a northern direction, separating Guelderland, Overyssell and Gröningen, from the Prussian territories in Westphalia, and the principality of East Friesland, now incorporated with the Hanoverian States, till it is terminated at the mouth of the Ems.

Prussian dominions, in Westphalia, to the eastern shore of the Zuyderzee, it is not above 35 British miles. In the southern division of the new kingdom, the breadth is much more considerable, being above 180 miles from Limburg to the North Sea. The extent of sea-coast is very considerable, it being more than 300 English miles in length, from the mouth of the Ems to the borders of French Flanders. The superficial contents of the united kingdom of the Netherlands, including the recent acquisitions on the side of France, namely, the fortresses of Philippeville and Marienburg, with the adjoining districts, and the entire duchy of Bouillon, which formerly lay within the French frontier, has been estimated by Hassel at 1,148.57 German, or 24,350 British square miles; of which 22,058 belong to the United Netherlands, and 2,292 to the Grand duchy of Luxemburg. Liechtenstein calculates the whole superficial area in German square miles at 1,054.98; Crome at 1,164.25; and Stein at 1,187. Balbi estimates it at 19,000 geographical, or about 25,000 British square miles.

Name.] This country was formerly part of *Gallia Belgica*, and was called *Belgium*. It obtained the appellation of the *Netherlands*, *Pays Bas*, or *Low Countries*, from its low situation in respect of Germany, and the extreme flatness of its surface, especially in Flanders, where one may travel a space of 50 miles without discerning the smallest hillock. The northern part of the kingdom is usually denominated *Holland*,—an appellation derived from the German word *hohl*, corresponding to the English word *hollow*, and implying a concave or very low country, as opposed to a convex superficies. The southern provinces are frequently called the *Belgic* provinces, or *Belgium*.

Divisions.] The following are the present divisions, with the area of the different provinces, according to Hassel:—

			German square miles.
The northern provinces, containing a total superficies of 512,61 German, or 10,867.33 English square miles.	1. Holland	South Holland	55.
		North Holland	43.5
	2. Friesland,		54.36
	3. Gröningen,		36.72
	4. Drenthe,		37.20
	5. Overyssel,		61.1
	6. Guelderland, or Geldern,		95.20
	7. Utrecht,		23.80
	8. Zeeland,		27.75
	9. North Brabant,		77.98
southern provinces, aining a total superl area of 635.96 Ger-, or 13,482.35 Eng- square miles.	10. South Brabant,		66.24
	11. Antwerp,		47.38
	12. East Flanders.		49.10
	13. West Flanders,		67.34
	14. Hennegau or Hainault		79.38
	15. Namur,		45.62
	16. Lüttich or Liege,		102.50
	17. Limburg,		70.30
	18. The Grand duchy of Luxemburg,		108.10
			1148.57

CHAP. I.—HISTORY.

EARLY AND MIDDLE HISTORY.] The history of the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg has been already detailed in our account of Germany. The

first notice we have of the Netherlands is contained in Cæsar's narrative of the progress of the Roman arms in Gaul. The seventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, were called *Gallia Belgica* by the Romans; and were known to them as inhabited by the Belgæ, the Batavi, and the Frisi. About a century before the Christian era, the Battæ had removed from Hesse to the marshy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maese, to which they gave the name of *Batavia.* Generous and brave, the Batavians were treated by the Romans with great respect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and only bound to perform military service. So highly were these people esteemed by their conquerors, that for many years the body-guard of the Roman emperor was chosen from the Batavian auxiliaries. The Batavians disappeared from history in the 5th century; the Belgæ or Belgians in the 6th; and the Frisians were conquered by the Franks in the 7th. The monarchy of the Franks, which arose on the ruins of Gaul, had in the 6th and 7th centuries embraced all the provinces of the Netherlands and planted the Christian faith in them. By the peace of Verdun, in 843, all the country to the east of the Rhine, and also Batavia and Friesland, were united to Germany; but several of the different governors soon rendered their dignity hereditary and power independent. In the 10th and 11th centuries, the inhabitants of the towns greatly distinguished themselves by their commercial activity, and their industry in reclaiming new tracts of country from the sea. They now acquired power, formed close alliances, and no longer either feared the sword of the German emperor, or respected the authority of his delegates. The struggle which this great commercial body maintained with the military lords of the soil forms one of the most interesting chapters in the history of Europe. During its continuance the Netherlands were split down into a number of petty States. By purchase, marriage, inheritance, or conquest, several of these lordships were frequently united under one master, and in the 15th century we find the whole in the possession of the house of Burgundy, from which it passed to the Spanish branch of the house of Austria, on the resignation of Maximilian in favour of his son Philip the Fair, who, dying in 1516, left these provinces to Charles V. At this time the Netherlands enjoyed what might be called independence; but Charles, by the vigour of his measures, and the policy of his councils, soon made them submit to his absolute authority. In 1556 the sovereignty of the Netherlands was abdicated by Charles in favour of his son Philip.

Philip II.—Duke of Alva.] The successor of Charles was a bigotted Catholic, who thought the persecution of heretics one of his most important duties. Besides, his affections were wholly engrossed by his Spanish subjects, and though the States imposed an additional oath on Philip, forbidding every shadow of innovation on the established laws of the country, it soon became evident how much he disregarded the interests of his subjects in this quarter of his dominions. His sister, the duchess of Parma, was appointed regent of the Netherlands, under the direction of Granvella, a zealous bigot; and a great number of foreign troops were introduced, who disgusted and oppressed the inhabitants not only by their licentiousness of manners, but by the exactions which were made for their support. The duchess of Parma had scarcely commenced her administration, when she discovered that the discontent of the people had risen to an alarming height. The prince of Orange, count Egmont, and count Horn, who

were at the head of the disaffected, loudly remonstrated against the new bishoprics, the establishment of an inquisition, and the influence of cardinal Granvella; and insisted that the States-general should be assembled, for the purpose of considering the grievances of the country. The duchess perceiving that the number of the discontented was too formidable to be treated with contempt, was compelled to comply in part with their requests; and Granvella, in 1564, resigned his dignity, but was succeeded by Barlaimont and Viglius, men entirely in his interests, by whom the persecution of the Protestants was continued with augmented vigour, Philip having declared that he would choose rather to be without subjects, than to be a ruler of heretics. Count Egmont was now sent into Spain, in order to remonstrate with Philip in person, and obtained a promise that the rigours of which the Protestants complained should be moderated. But in 1565, it was discovered that the courts of Spain and France were concerting measures for nothing less than the total destruction of the Protestants; while Philip openly revoked every concession which he had made to the heretics, and the measures of the inquisition became, if possible, more frequent and more rigorous than before. A general combination was now formed for procuring the removal of grievances, but Philip seemed to be resolved that matters should, by his own measures, be brought to an extremity. He proposed a new oath of allegiance, requiring all persons not only to renew their promises of fidelity to the king, but binding them to consider all whom he should think proper to name among his enemies, as traitors to their country. Thus the fury of persecution, instead of being abated, was augmented; and in 1666 the duke of Alva arrived at the head of 10,000 men, to support these arbitrary proceedings. Many of the more respectable inhabitants, foreseeing the disturbances which were to ensue, emigrated; and the duchess of Parma desired to be recalled, being unwilling, she said, to be left alone in the country. Philip accepted the resignation of the duchess, and appointed the duke of Alva to be her successor,—a man whose bigotry, pride, and stubbornness, corresponded to those of his master. The dispositions of the new governor were soon manifested; count Egmont and count Horn were condemned and executed; the estates of the prince of Orange who had left the country, confiscated; and every one who favoured the Protestant cause subjected to the most unrelenting persecution. The prince of Orange was meanwhile exerting himself in collecting troops for the assistance of his countrymen; but his eagerness, unfortunately for his cause, prompted him to attack Alva too precipitately. The prince's forces had been hastily collected; they were not well-disciplined; and he had not money to pay them with regularity. The duke's army, on the contrary, had every advantage of experience and royal support, and vanquished the troops of the prince and his adherents in every quarter. The severest punishments were now inflicted on such as had been supposed to favour the prince of Orange, and the persecution of the Reformed was continued with renewed rigour. Citadels were erected in several of the principal cities, and garrisons of foreign soldiers put into them, for the purpose of preventing the tumults of the citizens: while to support the army by which the people were oppressed, the hundredth part of every man's property, the tenth of every kind of merchandise, and the twentieth of immoveable property, were imposed as annual exactions. The province of Utrecht refused to pay taxes so very grievous; and to enforce obedience, a body of soldiers was placed among the people, to live at free quarters. When the edict, demanding payment

of the new taxes, was published at Brussels, instead of complying, the merchants shut up their shops. They offered, indeed, to pay an annual sum of 2,000,000 of florins as a composition; but their offer was rejected, and the duke was proceeding to military execution, when he received intelligence that Briel had surrendered to a squadron of vessels fitted out by the prince of Orange. The taking of Briel was followed by some other advantages, which tended to encourage the inhabitants in their resistance to Spanish tyranny. The most inveterate hatred prevailed between the two parties, and the success of either was generally followed by scenes of shocking barbarity. The duke of Alva, perceiving that the rigour with which he had enforced his measures, instead of intimidating the people, had united them against himself, and that the resistance was becoming more formidable than he had calculated, began at length to display more pacific intentions. He invited the States to assemble at Hague, and declared his willingness to repeal the taxes by which the minds of the people had been so violently inflamed, provided he could in any other way be furnished with money for his immediate necessities. This change of policy, however, came too late. The people now perceived that the Spaniards dreaded them, and, consequently, paid little attention to the duke's overtures. Neglecting his request to meet in the usual place, the States assembled at Dordrecht; and, instead of adopting any method for raising the money requested by the regent, they raised a supply for the prince of Orange, who now found himself at the head of an army amounting to upwards of 22,000 men. The prince soon took Roermonde; laid Brabant under contribution; made himself master of Mechlin, Oudenard, and Dendermonde; and while he attempted to raise the siege of Mons, despatched another party to the attack of Amsterdam. But the success which at first attended the insurgents, seemed for a while to forsake them. In spite of every effort, Mons was taken by the regent, and the force sent against Amsterdam was entirely defeated. Dismayed by the unfortunate turn of their affairs, all the provinces, except Holland and Zeeland, abandoned the confederation, and the regent once more hoped to re-establish his stern government. Meanwhile the prince of Orange, with his remaining forces, retired into Holland, which province, with Zeeland, could by being inundated be rendered impassable to the troops of the enemy. Frederic de Toledo, however, advanced against Naerden, and having taken it by surprise, put the inhabitants to the sword. The siege of Haerlem was next undertaken, and though the citizens, terrified by the fate of Naerden, had resolved to defend themselves to the last extremity, they were at length compelled to capitulate, but were treated with greater lenity than had been expected. A few of the most active were put to death; on the rest an oath of allegiance, and a contribution amounting to 15,000 florins, were imposed. These losses of the insurgents by land, were, in some degree however, compensated by their success at sea. The Zeelanders had fitted out a considerable fleet, and in several engagements overcame the naval forces of the regent. Alva, still more convinced that his extreme severity tended rather to provoke than intimidate the malcontents, now issued conciliatory proclamations inviting the people to return to their allegiance; but their minds were completely irritated, and they had resolved either to retrieve their liberty, or to fall in the struggle. Alkmaer, a town weakly garrisoned, and almost unfortified, was invested by 16,000 men, commanded by Frederic de Toledo; but made such a resistance as induced the Spaniards to raise the siege. This event

tended greatly to infuse new courage into the Hollanders, and the effect was heightened by a victory which the fleet of the Zeelanders obtained about the same time over the grand fleet of Alva. The duke now convinced that all his efforts would be ineffectual to render himself popular, resigned his power, and on Philip's order returned to Spain, to boast that in five years he had delivered 18,000 heretics into the hands of the executioner, and to meet the reward which such a servant of such a prince deserved; the suspicion and hatred of a master for whom he had sacrificed honour and humanity.

Duke of Requesenes—Pacification of Ghent.] He was succeeded by Louis de Requesenes, who arrived with orders to prosecute the war with increased vigour. The new regent defeated and put to death Louis of Nassau; but this advantage was counterbalanced by another great naval victory obtained by the Zeelanders, and by the numerous mutinies which about this time took place in the Spanish army. Though the malcontents had in the course of hostilities gained several considerable advantages, their independence was far from being established, and it was by no means a matter of certainty that they would ultimately succeed in their contest with Spain, at that time one of the most powerful nations of Europe. The ineffectual siege of Leyden is the most remarkable transaction of Requesenes in the Low Countries. The firmness of the citizens was triumphant on this occasion. The sluices were opened and the country laid under water, and the Spaniard made a miserable retreat, leaving the flower of his army buried in the marshes. Negotiations for peace, which had been carried on in 1575, were terminated unsuccessfully; and when the war re-commenced, the advantages were chiefly on the side of the Spaniards. Despairing of being able to maintain their independence, the Netherlanders would willingly have thrown themselves upon the protection of any of the Protestant powers of Europe that could have sheltered them from Spanish tyranny. An offer of the sovereignty of the Netherlands was made to Elizabeth of England, who, for several reasons, thought proper to refuse it. A similar offer was made to the duke of Anjou, in France; but the success of this negotiation was not greater than of that which had been formerly carried on with England. Still, though thus cut off from all hope of foreign protection, they did not relinquish the contest. The prince of Orange, who eagerly took advantage of every favourable circumstance, was indefatigable in his endeavours to unite his countrymen against their oppressors, and at length succeeded in forming a confederacy, generally known by the name of *the Pacification of Ghent.* Of this treaty the chief objects were to restore the ancient form of government, as it had existed under Charles V.; to abolish all severities with regard to religion; and to rid the country of foreign troops. To carry into effect the resolutions entered into at this pacification, a loan of £20,000 was obtained from England, and negotiations were entered into with Don John of Austria, Requesenes' successor, who, after much altercation, was compelled to accede to the terms of the Pacification of Ghent. This concession being confirmed by the authority of the Spanish monarch, John was acknowledged by the States as the Spanish king's lieutenant and governor in the Netherlands; but the provinces of Holland and Zeeland, more zealous than the rest in the cause of liberty, refused to sign the agreement which had been made with the governor, affirming that several of their ancient privileges had been retrenched. This, in a short time, interrupted the peace which it had been hoped was about to be established; and John, who probably

imagined that he had conceded too much, was not anxious to prevent the recommencement of hostilities. On the contrary, he urged Philip by every argument in his power, to renew the war with the provinces, and to force them to accept terms more favourable to despotism. Of these proceedings the States having received intelligence, John was deposed from his government, and the archduke Matthias appointed to fill his place; and on both sides active preparations were made for war.

Union of Utrecht.] The States had again recourse to Elizabeth, and prevailed on her to grant them not only a loan, but a considerable re-inforcement of troops. To produce greater efficiency in the resolutions of the nation, and to unite the jarring councils of the provinces, the archduke, with the council of State, and the prince of Orange, were invested with supreme power in military matters; and had influence sufficient to procure the formation of a closer union between the provinces of Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Friesland, Gröningen, Overyssel, and Guelderland. This union which, from the name of the place where the treaty was concluded, was called *the Union of Utrecht*, was concluded in 1579, and laid the foundation of the commonwealth known by the name of *the United Provinces*. Hostilities were again commenced, and foreign aid became necessary. The main stipulations in this treaty were that the seven provinces should join themselves in interest as one,—each province still retaining its own private customs and laws; that in disputes between any two the rest should interfere only as mediators; and that all should assist one another with life and wealth against every foreign enemy. Though the members of this confederacy had not shrunk from the perilous struggle before them, still they doubted of the issue themselves, and in allusion to the uncertain result of the contest upon which they were entering, their first coin was stamped with the image of a ship struggling amid the waves without oars or sculs, and bore the motto: *Incertum quo fata ferant.* It was indeed a perilous enterprise for a small community of fishers and herdsmen to enter the list against one of Europe's most powerful monarchs, and unfortunately at this arduous juncture, the prince of Orange was assassinated at Delft, by Balthazar Gerard, one of Philip's creatures. William's death was a heavy stroke to his fellow-citizens, and the Spaniards might ultimately have prevailed, had not Philip engaged in a war with England, and by the loss of his armada, crippled the resources of his kingdom. The affairs of the Spaniards in Holland, as in every other place, soon felt the effects of this defeat. Philip died in 1598, but hostilities were continued till 1609, when both parties concluded an armistice for twelve years. No sooner was this treaty concluded, than the Dutch applied themselves with vigour to the arts of commerce, and soon attained a considerable share of wealth and power. Religious disputes, however, which had first induced the inhabitants of the provinces to assert their freedom, seemed now to endanger their political existence. The dissensions of the Arminians and Calvinists rose to such a height as to threaten the dissolution of the republic itself. At the expiry of the armistice, war was again commenced, and during twenty years, hostilities were carried on with the greatest animosity; but the Spanish power had now become much less considerable than it had formerly been, and the Dutch were generally successful, until at last, in 1648, a treaty was concluded, by which the king of Spain renounced every claim to the sovereignty of the United Provinces.

MODERN HISTORY—*Batavian Republic.*] By prosecuting with perseverance the arts of traffic, the opulence of the republic daily increased;

the commerce of Lisbon, Cadiz, and Antwerp, flowed into the hands of the Dutch merchants, who now almost exclusively furnished Europe with the rich productions of the East; and the United States began to be ranked among the leading nations of Europe, and to assert their station accordingly. But maritime rivalship, and a refusal to pay honour to the English flag, involved them in a war with England, in which they were defeated in many great naval engagements, their fisheries interrupted, and their commerce nearly ruined. De Ruyter and Van Tromp were beaten by Blake off Portland in 1653, after a furious contest of two days; and next year Van Tromp perished on the third morning of a battle in which the English admiral Monk was the victor. The peace of 1654 relieved them from their embarrassments, and they again prosecuted their commercial enterprises with vigour and proportionate success, till the ambition of Louis XIV. involved them in a new war in 1670. That monarch envied the trade and prosperity of the Dutch, and, in his scheme for extending his dominions, would willingly have added Holland to his other territories. The other nations of Europe were involved in this quarrel; but the history of the subsequent wars, and of the elevation of William III., prince of Orange, to the English crown, belongs rather to that of Britain and France, than to that of Holland.

The republic gained very little advantage by the treaties of Ryswick and Utrecht, in 1697 and 1713. The country soon sunk from the height to which it had been raised. Its commerce, the great source of its power, disappeared, whilst England extended her own, and France created one. The country too was burdened by an immense national debt; and the means employed to reduce it, namely, the reduction of the army and the total neglect of the marine department, destroyed the little remaining commerce. When, in the Austrian war of succession, France attacked the frontier towns of the Netherlands, penetrated in 1747 into Dutch Flanders, and threatened Zeeland, Holland endeavoured to shelter itself by acknowledging prince William IV. of Orange as hereditary Stadtholder of all the Netherlands. In the war of England with North America, Holland did not fulfil the conditions of the treaty into which it had entered with the former power; and it was even discovered that another treaty had been concluded between Holland and the United States of America, in which a promise was given to acknowledge the independence of the latter. England upon this declared war against Holland, already weakened by internal dissentions, in 1780; and though the Dutch fleet fought gallantly at the Doggersbank under the command of admiral Zoutman in 1781, yet the United Netherlands were obliged to abandon Negapatam to England in the peace of 1783, and to allow that power the free navigation of all the East Indian seas, even of the passage by the Molucca islands. In the following year, the emperor Joseph II. demanded from the republic the free navigation of the Schelde; but in the peace concluded in 1785 by the mediation of France, the republic maintained its right in consideration of some small concessions of territory, and the payment of a sum of money. In the meantime, the State was brought to the very brink of ruin by internal dissensions, and the struggle of the aristocrats and democrats, or of the Orange Party against the Patriots. Deeply offended by the expressions which had fallen from some furious patriots, the wife of the Stadtholder William V. called for the assistance of her brother Frederic, William II. king of Prussia; whereupon the duke Charles William Ferdinand of Brunswick, entered the country with 25,000 Prussians, and in

eighteen days conquered the province of Holland. The party of the Stadtholder having now a decided superiority, the rights of the house of Orange were completely acknowledged. But the Anti-Orange party was only weakened, not suppressed; and when the French in 1793 declared war against the Stadtholder, and in January 1795 conquered Holland under Pichegru, the malcontents gladly assisted the invaders, and dissolved the government. The new *Batavian Republic*, formed under the protection of the French, was divided into eight departments. The legislative power was given, according to the French system, to an assembly of two houses, and the executive to a directory of five persons. But France retained for herself a part of Flanders, Maestricht, and Venloo, a district of country amounting to 763 square miles, with 122,000 inhabitants, and exacted a contribution of 100,000,000 of florins, as an indemnity for the expenses of the war. France received, besides, the half of the harbour of Vliessingen, and the free navigation of all the rivers and seas belonging to the republic, by the treaty of peace and alliance of 1795. In 1801 the constitution of the country was again changed by its capricious rulers; and the Batavian republic, no longer capable of any exertion, saw her fleets ruined by the maritime power of England, her colonies destroyed, her commerce annihilated, and the bank of Amsterdam, the great national resource, completely ruined. The peace of Amiens in 1802 restored some of the lost colonies to the republic; but England kept the important island of Ceylon, and France retained several districts for which only an insignificant indemnification was given. The new war between France and Britain destroyed the last hopes of this unhappy country; her colonies fell again into the power of England, and English ships blockaded the Dutch harbours; while to complete the degradation of the unfortunate Hollanders, a new constitution was given them by the emperor Napoleon, on the 15th of March 1805, and on the 24th of May 1806 his brother Louis Napoleon was declared hereditary king of Holland, under the condition that the crowns of France and Holland were never to be united on one head. By this arrangement Louis remained hereditary constable of France, and stood with his children under the law of the imperial family of France. In Holland he enjoyed without limitation the executive power, and the whole State patronage. The legislative body consisted of thirty-eight members. But the splendour of a royal crown could not blind any eye to the misery of the country; the national debt increased to about 1,200,000,000 of florins; and the merchants subsisted only by means of the smuggling trade carried on with England, until the decree of Napoleon from Milan, dated the 11th of November 1807, and the Tarif of Trianon destroyed even this last shadow of commerce. East Friesland, Tever, Kniephausen, and Varel, were united to Holland in the year 1807; and on the other hand, the whole land between France and the Maese, a part of Zeeland, the fortresses of Bergen-op-Zoom, Breda, Herzogenbusch, Gertrudenberg, Middelburg, and Vliessingen, were given to France.

The remaining country, amounting to only 12,253 square miles, with a population of 2,001,416 inhabitants, was taxed to the amount of 70,000,000 of florins annually to support the expenses of Louis Buonaparte's Government. The war with Austria into which this poor country was forced by Napoleon in 1809, and the invasion of Zeeland by the English troops, accelerated the entire ruin of the Dutch, who, in spite of prohibition and customhouses, still continued to carry on a smuggling trade with England. In 1810, Napoleon converted part of Brabant, Zeeland,

and Guelderland, into French departments, whereupon Louis, irritated at thus finding himself a mere puppet in the hands of his brother, abdicated in favour of his son, and retired into the Austrian territory. Napoleon did not acknowledge the abdication; but nevertheless, by decree of 9th July 1810, united the whole of Holland to the French empire. The approach of the victorious allied armies excited the Dutch to shake off their odious allegiance to France; the movement was general and decisive, though bloodless; the French were driven out of the country, and on the 2d of December 1813, the Stadtholder William, who had been recalled from England, made his triumphant entry into Amsterdam where he was received with every demonstration of joy.

United Netherlands.] The Spanish or Catholic Netherlands had been for two centuries an object of contention between France and Spain. The latter power was finally compelled, by the treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659, and of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1668, to give up to France the whole of Artois, part of Flanders, Hennegau, Hainault, Namur, and Luxemburg, which were now called the French Netherlands. The peace of Utrecht in 1713 gave the Spanish Netherlands to Austria, after the death of Charles II. The emperor Joseph II. having offended the States of the country, consisting of the clergy, the nobility, and citizens, a rebellion broke out in 1789, and the Austrian troops were driven out of the country, which was declared independent. In 1794 the French reduced the Netherlands, which were afterwards ceded to them in the peace of Campo Formio, and divided into seven departments. The country remained subject to France for sixteen years, till after the battle of Leipzic; and in the Congress of Vienna by act of the 21st July 1814 it was, together with the bishopric of Liege—excepting a small part left to France and another given to Austria—united with Holland in the kingdom of the *United Netherlands,* of which the sovereignty was given to the Prince of Orange, who took the name of William I. The Grand Duchy of Luxemburg was likewise given to the king of the Netherlands, to indemnify him for the possessions he had in Nassau; but it was declared that it should remain a separate State, and form part of the German confederacy, in which the king holds the eleventh place with three votes *in plenum.* In the second treaty of Paris, France was obliged to give up those parts also of the Netherlands which had been left to it by the former treaty, together with the fortresses of Marienburg and Philippeville. By the treaty of the 29th of October 1819 the Netherlands renounced all claims on the Cape of Good Hope, the colonies of Demerary, Essequibo, and Berbice; and on the other hand, the colonies which had belonged to the Dutch previous to 1794: viz. Batavia, the Moluccas, Surinam, and St Eustatius, were restored by Great Britain.

CHAP. II.—PHYSICAL FEATURES—FORESTS—RIVERS—LAKES—CANALS—SEA-DYKES.

THE whole of the Netherlands is a low flat country, especially Flanders and Holland, which, as Temple observes, look like the sea in a calm. The extreme flatness of the surface in Holland, although exceedingly favourable for the cutting of canals, renders the appearance of the country by far too uniform, and deprives it of that picturesque beauty of landscape which results from the mixture of hills and valleys. Scarcely an eminence

is to be seen all the way from Utrecht to the frontiers of France; and even to the east of that city, the proportion of level country is much greater than of that which presents a slight degree of elevation. What is called a hill in the eastern provinces of Holland, would in any other country be considered only as a small sandy hillock. In the northern and western parts the country is so low that the surface of the provinces of Gröningen, Friesland, and Holland, is actually below the sea-level; yet the fields are carefully cultivated, and preserved from the fury of the ocean waves, partly by vast artificial dykes, partly by natural sand-hills or downs. Here the numerous canals intersecting every district in all directions,—the frequency and cleanly neatness of the towns,—the innumerable villas decorated with the utmost nicety of art,—proclaim the laborious perseverance and wealth of the inhabitants, who have converted fens and bogs and sandy heaths into fruitful fields and smiling meadows. In the Netherlands, as distinguished from Holland, the farm-houses and cottages of the inhabitants have an air of ease and comfort corresponding with the contented and healthy appearance of their possessors. That active industry which will not suffer a weed to grow while it can be eradicated, and turns every little patch of garden or orchard-ground to active profit, is no where seen to so much advantage as here; and the Flemish painters have only copied from nature when they represented the cottages of their fatherland as embosomed among groupes of trees and thickets. These artificial beauties, as proofs of industry, comfort, and taste, delight the eye of the traveller, and compensate for the want of those natural features peculiar to other countries. In the southern provinces of Hainault, Namur, Liege, and Luxemburg, the hills attain a more considerable elevation, particularly on the E. side of the Meuse, where a branch of the Ardennes enters Luxemburg, and penetrates as far as Hainault.

Forests.] Large and extensive forests are to be met with in some districts of the Netherlands, particularly in the county of Namur, the southern parts of Liege and Luxemburg, and along the French frontier, being remains of the celebrated Forest of *Arduenna.*[2] The following forests still remain in the Netherlands: viz. The forest of Mormaut, between the Sambre and Meuse, containing an extent of several leagues. The wood of St Amand, on the borders of French Flanders, and reaching to the neighbourhood of Valenciennes. The forest of Faigne in Hainault, reaching to Mezieres in Champagne. The forest of Soignies in the neighbourhood of Brussels, containing above 8,000 acres, which usually yielded an annual revenue of 50,000 florins to the Austrian government. The forests of Murdal, Zaventerloo, Grotenhout, and Turnhout, between Louvain, Brussels and Vilvorden. The forest of Maarlaigne, on the banks of the Meuse, which reaches from Namur to the neighbourhood of Philippeville. The wood of Nieppe, near the borders of Arras, is the chief forest in Flanders, reaching as far as the Lys; and there is another near Ypres, stretching to the north, and containing a great number of abbeys and villages. The forest of Poodsberg, on the frontiers of Flanders and Hainault, between Grammont and Lessinis, is a large forest, almost of an orbicular form. Lastly, the forest of Echterwald, near Arnheim, in Guelderland. These numerous and extensive woods supply the Belgians with fuel: though there are also coal-mines, particularly in the principality of Liege, and in the neighbourhood of Charleroi. They chiefly consist of beech,

[2] It was on this account that the duchy of Luxemburg, when under the French power, was denominated the department of the *Forets.*

but also contain birches, elms, oaks, and other trees. The oaks, in particular, seem to find this a favourite soil, and are to be seen sprouting freely in situations where the surface appears a light and loose sand. The forests of Flanders were lately much more valuable than at present; for all the trees fit for ship-timber have been, in a great measure, cut down: first by the Republicans, who, before the commencement of 1797, had felled no fewer than 1,500,000 trees for the purposes of ship-building; and a greater number were afterwards cut down by Buonaparte's orders, in order to recruit the French navy, and to create a new fleet at Antwerp. There are but few trees in the northern provinces, except willows, which are abundantly planted on the sides of the canals and embankments.

Rivers.] If the united Netherlands are destitute of mountains, those grand and distinguishing features of nature, they are by no means deficient in rivers; so that if this kingdom cannot be denominated a land of hills and valleys, it may very properly be designated a place of broad rivers and of streams, such as the majestic Rhine, the Maese, the Scheldt, and a multitude of smaller streams which augment these grand rivers. But the flatness of the whole country is such, that the rivers, as if uncertain whither to pursue their course, roll with tardy current, and divide into numerous branches before they reach the sea.

The Rhine.] The Rhine has undergone great changes in the lower part of its course, since the days of Cæsar and Tacitus; but to enter into any detail respecting these changes would be quite out of place in a popular work like this, and such of our learned readers as wish to be more particularly informed concerning the ancient mouths of the Maese and the Rhine, the *Insula Batavorum*, and the Canal of Drusus, may obtain as much satisfaction as the nature of the subject will allow, by consulting the learned Cluvier, D'Anville, and Mannert. The Rhine almost loses its name on entering the Netherlands; and at present divides into two branches, 5 miles below Emmerick, in the duchy of Cleve. The southern branch, under the name of the Waal—the ancient *Vahalis*—runs almost due W. till it joins the Maese, to the north of Bois le Duc. The northern branch, after proceeding a small distance to the N.W., is divided into two streams at Arnheim. The branch called the Leck, runs W. and joins the eastern branch of the Maese, a little to the east of Rotterdam. The other branch called the Yssel, runs north, and falls into the Zuydersee at Campen.

The Maese.] The Meuse, or Maese as it is called by the Dutch and Germans, rises in the neighbourhood of Langres, near the village of Meuse, which is reckoned the highest ground in France, and from which the Seine, the Aube, the Marne, the Saone and the Maese, flow in different directions to the sea. The Maese waters, in its tortuous course through France, Stenay, Verdun, Sedan, Doucherry, Mezieres, and Charleville; and entering the United Netherlands at Givet, runs between it and Charlemont; passes by Namur, where it receives the Sambre; by Huy and Liege, where it receives the Ourthe from Luxemburg; by Maestricht and Röermonde, where it is joined by the Röer; pursues its course to Venloo, Grave, and Battenburg; and thence proceeds in a western direction, till it divides itself into two branches. The southern branch joins the Waal, forming with it the Isle of Bommel, and thus united, passes by Gorcum to Dort, where it is again divided, one branch joining the Leck on the north, by means of the Meuse. Of the southern branch which pursues a western course, a small branch runs south into that arm of the north sea

called the Haring-Vliet; while the main branch continuing its western course, falls into the sea at Briel, in the Isle of Voorne. Below Gorcum, the Meuse by its divided channels forms many islands, the chief of which are Ysselmonde, Stryen, and Voorne. The comparative course of this river, through the United Netherlands, from Givet to the Briel, is 250 British miles. It retains its name during the whole of its course, and has in vulgar speech usurped the honours due to the majestic Rhine. If we were to speak or write correctly, the æstuaries or mouths of the Maese, should be styled those of the Rhine; though the people, accustomed to the ancient and more northern egress of this grand river, have continued to prefer tradition to fact, and consequently have denominated that the Maese, which in point of fact should be called the Rhine. The Leck and Waal must be regarded as mouths of the Rhine, though after their junction below the Isle of Bommel, they are commonly styled the Maese; while in just and precise geography, it would be said, that the Maese now falls into the Rhine on the E. side of the Isle of Bommel. That branch of the Rhine, which runs through Guelderland, and falls into the Zuydersee at Campen, is called the Yssel, from a comparatively small stream of that name, which rises in the bishopric of Munster, and running a NW. course, falls into this branch of the Rhine at Duisburg.

The Scheldt.] The Scheldt, or Schelde, called l'Escaut by the French, rises in Picardy out of a small lake, one mile east of Beaurevoir. It passes by Cambray, Bouchain, Valenciennes—where it begins to be navigable for boats—Conde, Tournay, Oudenarde, Ghent, Dendermonde and Antwerp. It divides into two branches below Fort Lillo. One of these, called the Eastern Scheldt, flows by Bergen-op-zoom; the other, the Western Scheldt, proceeds to Flushing; and both of these branches, after forming several islands, fall into the German ocean. These islands are called the isles of Zeeland. The Scheldt is joined by the Selle, a little above Denain; the Saussel, at Bouchain; the Scarpe, at Mortagne; the Lys, at Ghent; and the Dender, at Dendermonde. The most of these tributary streams rise in the county of Artois, at no great degree of elevation. The whole course of the Scheldt may be estimated at 150 British miles, without including the windings of the stream. It has a very large volume of water, considering the shortness of its course, being at Antwerp 2160 feet broad, and 30 feet deep at low water. The tide rises 15 feet, and runs up as far as Ghent, 30 British miles of direct distance above Antwerp. The Ems, where it falls into the Dollart, belongs to the Netherlands. The Mosel or Moselle, touches the eastern boundaries of Luxemburg. There are also the Yser, the Blackwater, the Hunse, and the Fivel. Almost all these rivers are navigable, and connected together by numerous canals, which intersect the whole of the northern and the greater part of the southern divisions of the kingdom.

Lakes.] There are no lakes in the ci-devant Austrian Netherlands, but there are some in Holland. It has been supposed that the Zuydersee, which occupies 1207 square miles, was originally a large fresh water lake; and that the lake *Flevus* of Tacitus was what is now termed the southern part of the Zuydersee. The circumstance of this southern part of that inland sea being much deeper than the northern part, which is extremely shallow, strengthens this conjecture. In the days of Tacitus, the Issel or Yssel was connected with the Rhine by the canal of Drusus; but this canal being neglected, the Rhine joined the Issel with such force, that the confluent stream increased the lake of Flevo to a great extent; and

instead of a river of the same name, which ran formerly 50 Roman miles from that lake to the sea, there was opened that wide gulf which now forms the entrance or northern part of the Zuydersee. The *Haarlemer meer* or lake of Haerlem is about 15 British miles in length, and about one half of that extent in breadth, occupying 16,000 English acres. There are a great number of lakes in Friesland, but none of them are large. The Dollart between Gröningen and the Hanoverian province of East Friesland, occupies about 60 square miles, and was formed by two successive irruptions of the sea in 1277 and 1287.

Inland Navigation.] The Netherlands, but especially Holland, abound in canals, the cutting of which is greatly facilitated by the extreme flatness of the surface, and the multitude of small streams intersecting the country in all directions. Some of them are as old as the tenth century; and the existing government is anxious to keep them in repair. The chief of the Flemish canals are those of Bruges and Brussels. The canal of Bruges leads to Ghent, and is branched out into a number of other canals which conduct the traveller to Sluys, Blankenberg, Ostend, Furnes, Nieuport, Dunkirk, Dixmuyde, Menin, Ypres. The canal between Bruges and Ostend, carries vessels of 300 tons burden up to Bruges. That between Bruges and Ghent was dug by the celebrated Spanish general, Spinola, and is 24 miles in length. The canal of Brussels, is drawn from the Senne, which runs through the city, to the Scheldt at Rupelmonde, 15 miles distance, and was executed by the orders of the emperor Charles V., and his son Philip. The charge amounted to 1,300,000 dollars. From Brussels to Rupelmonde, the canal has a descent of 40 feet. In Holland, the canals are as numerous as the roads; and by means of these an extensive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but, as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the whole earth are conveyed at comparatively small expense into the interior of Germany and the Netherlands. The usual way of travelling is by covered boats, called *treckschuyts*, or track-boats, dragged along the canals in a way similar to that which is practised on the Great Canal between Glasgow and Grangemouth. These vessels contain two apartments, the upper one called the roof, being neatly fitted up, and appropriated to the best company; the roof holds from 8 to 12 persons; the inferior apartment from 40 to 50. A treckschuyt moves precisely at the rate of 4 English miles an hour. In winter, when the canals are frozen, it is usual for the country-girls to bring the produce of the dairy to market, in baskets on their heads, skaiting the whole way. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, the traveller is astonished at viewing the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce Here the canals are bordered for miles by elegant pleasure grounds and country-houses, indicative of the extraordinary wealth and comfort of the inhabitants. The total of the hydraulic works between the Dollart and the Scheldt, have been estimated by a competent judge to have cost £300,000,000 sterling, and form, in so small a country, a most astonishing monument of human industry.

Great Dutch Canal.] This is one of the most stupendous works of the kind in existence. Its object is to afford a passage for large vessels from Amsterdam to the sea. This city has 40 feet of water in the road in front of its port, but the Pampas or bar in the Zuydersee, seven miles below, has only a depth of 10 feet, and hence all ships of any considerable burden have to unload part of their cargoes with lighters before they enter

the port. As the sea in question is full of shallows, all ordinary means of improving the access to the port were necessarily ineffectual, and the resolution was at length adopted of cutting a canal from the town to the Helder, the northmost point of the province of Holland. The distance between the extreme points is 41 English miles, but the length of the canal is about 50½. The breadth at the surface of the water is 124½ English or 120 Rhinland feet; the breadth at bottom 36; the depth 20 feet 9 inches. Like the Dutch canals generally, its level is that of the high tides of the sea, from which it receives its supply of water. The only locks it requires, of course, are two tide-locks at the extremities; but there are, besides, two sluices with flood-gates in the intermediate space. It has only 18 draw-bridges in its whole length. The locks and sluices are double, that is to say, there are two in the breadth of the canal; and their construction and workmanship are excellent. They are built of brick for economy, but bands of limestone are interposed at intervals, and these project about an inch beyond the brick, to protect it from abrasion by the sides of the vessels. There is a broad towing-path on each side, and the canal is wide enough to admit of one frigate passing another.[3]

Sea-Dykes.] As the coast of Holland is remarkably flat, especially from the islands of Zeeland to the Texel, the Dutch are at infinite expense and labour in making and repairing dykes and embankments to prevent the encroachments of the sea, and those dreadful inundations to which the country is sometimes subjected from the height and violence of the tides acting upon a shore unusually and uniformly flat and low. These dykes annually employ more men than all the corn of the province of Holland can

[3] The intelligent Scottish journalist from whom we have taken the account of this great work, and who we believe first introduced it, with the exception of a few passing notices of travellers, to the attention of the British public, adds: "The line which the canal follows may be easily traced on a map of Holland. From the river Ye at Amsterdam, it proceeds north to Purmerend, thence west to Alkmaar Lake, thence north by Alkmaar to a point within two miles of the coast, near Petten, and it continues to run nearly parallel to the coast from this point to the Helder, where it joins the sea, at the fine harbour of Niewediep, formed within the last thirty years. At the latter place there is a powerful steam-engine for supplying the canal with water during neap tides, and other purposes. The time spent in tracking vessels from the Helder to Amsterdam, is 18 hours. The Helder point is the only spot on the shores of Holland that has deep water; and it owes this advantage to the island of Texel opposite, which, by contracting the communication between the German Ocean and the Zuydersee to a breadth of a mile, produces a current which scours and deepens the channel. Immediately opposite the Helder there is 100 feet of water at high tides, and at the shallowest part of the bar to the westward there are 27 feet. In the same way, the artificial mound which runs into the lake or river Ye, opposite Amsterdam, by contracting the water-way to about 1000 feet, keeps a depth of 40 feet in the port (at high water), while above and below there is only 10 or 12. The canal was begun in 1819, and finished in 1825. The cost was estimated at ten or twelve millions of florins, or about one million sterling. If we compute the magnitude of this canal by the cubic contents of its bed, it is the greatest we believe in the world—unless some of the Chinese canals be exceptions. The volume of water which it contains when filled, or the *prism de remplissage*, is twice as great as that of the New York canal, or the canal of Languedoc, and two and a half times as great as that of the Caledonian canal, if we include only those parts of the latter which have been cut with human labour. We have not heard what returns it yields; but we may safely assume that for some years it will not be a profitable concern. Even in Holland where interest is low, it would require tolls to the amount of L.50,000 per annum to cover interest and expenses. We find from the *Bulletin des Sciences*, that 1982 ships entered the port of Amsterdam in 1827. Most of the small ones would probably take the old route by the Zuydersee, but supposing 1000 to have gone through the canal, it would be necessary that they should pay L.50 each of toll for passing in and returning, to make up the sum we have mentioned. With the heavy ships, however, the saving of lighterage would probably be a full compensation for this expenditure. To vessels leaving Amsterdam, which formerly were often detained in the Zuydersee by adverse winds for weeks, the canal must be extremely useful."

maintain. They are usually 30 feet high, and 70 feet broad at the bottom; and are made of the roughest clay, fenced on the land-side with wood and stone, and on that next the sea with mats of rushes and flags staked down as high as the tide usually rises, or with sea-weed, which prevents the water from sapping and undermining the body of the dykes. In North Holland, during violent storms, they clap sail-cloth on the outside of their dykes. However, in spite of all their labour, the sea is still gaining on the coast. From the Helder to the Hook of Holland at the mouth of the Maese, a distance of 73 miles, though the violence of the waves is curbed by a continued row of downs or sandy hillocks, between which and the sea lies the finest sand-flat in the world, and the water is so shallow that in calm weather persons may wade a great way without being obliged to swim, yet even these downs are disappearing, as a great part of the land has been washed away. In the interior parts of Holland and Guelderland, they are likewise exposed to inundations arising from another cause, viz. the melting of the snow in the Alpine country of Switzerland, which swelling the Rhine and its tributary mountain-streams, floats down great quantities of ice into Holland, where the banks of the river being low, and the country flat, the inhabitants are forced to raise embankments to prevent inundation. But sometimes the masses of ice, from the slowness of the current, and from the ice continuing long at the Zuydersee and the mouths of the Waal and Leck, are gorged, and an inundation ensues in spite of artificial embankments, as happened in 1638, when the ice of the Rhine broke down the Yssel dyke near Utrecht, and laid a great part of Holland under water. The Dutch are also subjected to inundations of another kind occasioned by the making of peat or turf, the only fuel which is used in Holland. In order to attain good peat, it must be dug from the bottom of the pit, and afterwards dried. The holes are of course immediately filled with water; and in some parts the peat is dug to the depth of twelve feet or more. The part of the land which is thus taken out and filled with water must be surrounded with a dyke to prevent it from flowing over the neighbouring fields, which are often dug out and drained again, and are sometimes 20 feet below the surface of the water which stands against the surrounding dykes. For want of proper regulations, an immense deal of peat and earth has been thus lifted, and its place is now filled by large lakes and sheets of water, which in stormy weather are very dangerous, though the dykes surrounding them are in good repair. As the Dutch are forced by a necessity strong as that of self-preservation to keep the dykes in good order, they have a college or board of dyke-commissioners, whose duty it is to superintend the whole embankments of the country, and interior colleges all over the country, which are obliged to report from time to time to the high board on the condition of the dykes and embankments in their district.

CHAP. III.—CLIMATE—SOIL AND AGRICULTURE—PRODUCTIONS —FISHERIES—MINERALS—COMMERCE—MEASURES.

Climate.] While the climate of the southern part of the United Netherlands considerably resembles that of the south of England, and is more moist than warm,—the climate of Holland, from the abundance of its rivers and canals, is cold and humid. This circumstance is increased in Holland by the north-easterly winds which prevail during winter, and

which bring from the frozen regions of northern Europe a degree of chilness unknown in Britain. The Zuydersee, with the principal ports upon the coast, are frozen during several months in winter, and in some years the rivers are so frozen as to bear the passage of common and heavy-loaded waggons across them. The climate of the Netherlands is very healthy; but that of Holland from its humidity is unfavourable to longevity, and few of the Dutch arrive at a great age. Taking the average of life among ourselves, in round numbers, at 50 years; in Holland, according to Dr Macculloch, it is only 25. The sudden transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat, augment the unhealthiness of the climate; and occasion fevers, pleurisies, and scorbutic complaints. The most pleasant time of the year is the months of September and October. The largest quantity of rain and snow generally falls in January. Though the air of the interior of the South Netherlands is healthy, yet upon the coast of Flanders, and the mouths of the Scheldt, the climate is remarkably moist and unhealthy, as our soldiers fatally experienced in the Walcheren expedition. Yet consumptions are not common in Holland, as the Dutch are in the habit of suiting their clothing to the changes of the climate.

Soil and Agriculture.] The soil of the Netherlands is generally a rich sandy loam, sometimes interspersed with fields of clay, but more frequently with large tracts of sand. The science of agriculture has for ages been successfully cultivated in this quarter, which was long esteemed the garden of Europe, although 800 or 1000 years back the Low Countries were covered with one uninterrupted forest, giving place here and there to a barren heath or morass. Almost all travellers give praise to the Flemish farmers for their skill in agriculture, and point out many advantages which Flemish husbandry has over that of England. The excellent clover—which here seems indigenous—and the clean crops of flax, barley, and oats, deservedly attracted the attention of tourists. The Flemish farmers never allow the land to lie in fallow, the purposes of which may be accomplished by crops of turnips, rape, beans, and clover, which not only destroy the weeds, but enrich the soil. In Brabant the usual way of improving waste or barren land is by sowing it with flax-seed, accompanied with clover, which is in such cases much more luxuriant than when sowed with the cerealia, yielding a heavy crop a few months after it is sown, and two, and sometimes even three still more abundant crops the next year, by the aid of a top-dressing. The abundance of clover and turnips enables the Flemish farmer to maintain a great number of cattle, principally cows. Betwixt Antwerp and Ghent, a distance of more than 30 English miles, every third or fourth field is sown with flax, which by the application of liquid manure and oil-cakes, often produces a return of £50 per acre. A late traveller describes the cottages of the Flemings as neat and comfortable compared with those of our own country, and the garden and orchard which usually surround them give them an air of ease and comfort far preferable to the dull and uninviting appearance of a Scottish cottage. The humidity and coldness of the Dutch climate are unfavourable to the cultivation of grain. The corn raised in Holland is insufficient for the home-consumption, but the productions of the dairy afford ample means for purchasing the requisite quantity of grain. By far the greatest part of the land is laid out in pasturage, a purpose for which it seems admirably adapted. By draining the bogs and marshes, excellent meadows are created, upon which lean German and Dutch cattle can be fattened to a vast size. The cows seem originally from Holstein; and the utmost

attention is paid to their warmth and cleanliness, so that even in summer, these animals appear in the meadows clothed with apparently ludicrous care to keep off the flies which infest them. The cows do not yield so large a quantity of milk as many of our English cows; but from the butter and cheese they produce, it appears to be of richer quality. The annual produce of each cow in South Holland is calculated at 78 pounds of butter, and 180 of cheese.[4] On receding from the coast, and approaching the German frontier, the husbandry assumes the character of that of the midland counties of England.

The landlords and tenants are exceedingly careful to improve their lands and follow a proper system of rotation, and above all to enrich the soil by manure, which is carefully collected by a variety of processes. In fact, the Dutch, by unwearied and persevering industry, have conquered almost every disadvantage of climate, soil, and territory. The air and water are both equally bad,—the soil naturally produces scarcely any thing but peat,—and even the very possession of this soil is disputed by the sea, which is constantly endeavouring to reclaim it as its own,—and yet the labours of the patient Dutchmen have rendered their small, boggy, and insignificant territory, one of the richest spots in Europe. Besides wheat, rye, barley, oats, pease, beans, and buck-wheat; madder, rape-seed, hops, tobacco, clover-seed, mustard-seed, flax, hemp, poppy-oil, and some other productions are raised both for home-consumption and exportation. The science of horticulture is also much cultivated in Holland; and there is a neatness and degree of taste displayed in their gardens and orchards, that is scarcely to be found in any other part of Europe. Corn is grown only in a few districts, and is of very inferior quality.

Animal Kingdom.] In the articles of zoology and botany nothing worthy of particular notice occurs. Game is rare, and entirely wanting in the northern provinces, with the exception of hares and rabbits. Wolves are sometimes seen in Luxemburg. The Dutch are annually visited by great numbers of storks about the end of February, which build and hatch on the chimneys in towns as well as villages. They take flight with their young, about the beginning of August, and go to Africa, whence they return in spring to Holland. Vast numbers of aquatic fowls, as wild geese, wild ducks, and herons, feed in the channels and marshes about the end of autumn, or beginning of winter. Domestic fowls abound especially in Holland, where about the feast of St Martin of Tours, they have particular markets for selling geese, when the poorest peasant will be sure to have one for his family. The shores of the Netherlands abound in fish of all kinds, and the mouths of the Maese and Leck in Holland. Shell-fish, oysters, and lobsters, are very plentiful. The herrings seem not to be natives of the Dutch shore, but come from the northern ocean, and are chiefly brought to Flaerdingen, a port to the west of Rotterdam, once so noted that the earls of Holland were first mentioned by the title of earls of Flaerdingen.

Fisheries.] The herring-fishery, long called with propriety the gold mine of Holland, was carried on so early as the 12th century; but the art

[4] North and South Holland, Gröningen, and Utrecht, make together 140,000,000 lbs. of cheese annually, the home consumption of which does not exceed 7,000,000 lbs. or $\frac{1}{20}$th. This large quantity at its average price produces £1,800,000 sterling annually. The value of the butter manufactured is about 24,000,000 guilders, or about £2,000,000 sterling more, of which their own consumption amounts to $\frac{1}{10}$th, thus leaving a surplus of £1,800,000 sterling annually. During the last 40 years, these simple productions of the soil have amounted at several times to nigh £7,000,000 in one year.

of curing and barrelling these fish was first discovered by Beukelz in 1316 In 1610, 3,000 busses manned by 50,000 fishermen, were employed in it: besides 9,000 boats and 150,000 persons who were occupied in transporting, curing, and selling the fish, which then yielded a yearly revenue to the country of £2,500,000. In the middle of the 18th century the fishery was at its height, and employed 100,000 fishermen. In 1780 the number of vessels employed in this trade were reduced to 200, in consequence of the increasing attention which Britain and other maritime nations paid to their own fisheries. They now employ about 20,000 families, and 200 busses. On the decline of the herring-fishery, the industrious Dutch directed their capital to the more distant and precarious whale-fishery. The total gross produce of the Dutch fisheries is about £1,000,000 annually.

Minerals.] So flat a country as the United Netherlands, cannot be supposed to be prolific in minerals; and in Holland particularly, minerals are totally unknown. However, in the S. and S.E. districts of the United Netherlands, as Namur, Liege, Limburg, and Luxemburg, mines of copper, iron, lead, and marble exist. Those huge blocks of hewn stone, of the most beautiful grey colour and closest grain, which were employed by Buonaparte in facing the large and deep basins which he constructed at Antwerp, and which generally weighed from two to four tons each, were all brought by water from the quarries of Charlerois,—a distance of 60 British miles from Antwerp. Coal also abounds in the neighbourhood of Charlerois, and very large mines of it exist in the county of Liege. Iron and slate abound in Hainault. French ingenuity was much exerted in improving the operations carried on in the numerous and extensive coal-mines in the bishopric of Liege, whilst it formed a department of the empire. The turf commonly used for fuel amounts to 12,000,000 of tons, valued at £500,000 annually.—There are no mineral springs of importance in Holland. The only valuable mineral waters are those of Spa, in the eastern quarter of Liege, discovered in the 14th century.

History of Dutch Trade and Commerce.] The commerce and manufactures of the late Austrian Netherlands were for a long time the most flourishing in Europe;[5] but declined rapidly from the moment in which they passed from the mild sway of the house of Burgundy to the iron sceptre and viceregal government of Spain. Other causes, such as foreign competition, and the establishment of political and religious liberty in the Seven United Provinces, contributed to exalt Amsterdam upon the ruins of Antwerp. This last city enjoyed a vast commerce in the 16th century. In 1550, its wealth was computed at 133,000,000 of florins, or above £13,000,000 sterling, besides the contents of its bank. In the days of Guicciardino, when in its most palmy state, it contained above 200,000 inhabitants; and above 2,500 vessels might be seen lying together at one time in the roads,—400 came up with one tide,—and it was usual for 500 to go and come in a day; 200 waggons daily arrived with passengers from the neighbouring countries, and 1000 weekly from Germany, the Hanse towns, Lorraine, and France. Above 10,000 carts were weekly employed in land-carriage; and 500 coaches were maintained by the people of fortune and quality. The exchange—which in its day was the first in Eu-

[5] Even during Roman sway the inhabitants of Arras and several other French cities were celebrated for the manufacture of woollen cloths. At a later period, under the emperor Charlemagne, a present of fine linen and of woollen cloths, sent to the Caliph of Bagdad, was deemed to display a high specimen of the industry and skill of the western world.

rope—cost above 300,000 crowns; it was 180 feet long, and 140 broad, and was supported by 43 pillars of blue marble. But the iron sway and bigotted policy of Ferdinand, duke of Alva, paralyzed all this commercial activity; and the treaty of Munster, in 1648, by which the mouth of the Scheldt was in effect shut to the citizens of Antwerp, completed the ruin which Alva began,—so that the port was without ships,—the exchange without merchants,—and two-thirds of the city without inhabitants. When the French republicans had conquered the Netherlands and incorporated them with France, the opening of the Scheldt was one of their first cares. A canal was also ordered to be made for joining the Rhine, the Maese, and the Scheldt; and magnificent dock-yards were afterwards constructed, together with a large quay. When the Dutch obtained independence, Europe was just emerging from the gloom of ten centuries. Ignorance and despotism stood arrayed in every dreadful form to repress the growing spirit of political and religious freedom, and to extinguish the rising light; they had felt oppression, and had suffered much in the struggle, and thus they learnt the value of a just administration and rational liberty. The lesson was not lost on them; as in too many cases, it has been upon mankind; they established a government amongst themselves, in order to secure that freedom for which they had so long and so vigorously contended, and upon it they constructed a system of civil and religious liberty unmatched at that time in Europe. To the fens and swamps of Holland, therefore, however physically uninviting, the discontented and the persecuted hurried from every quarter to enjoy that freedom which fairer climes yielded them not; the Puritans from England, the Huguenots from France, the Walloons from the Netherlands, and the Protestants from Germany and Poland, hastened hither, and brought with them, if not wealth, something which was more valuable, the love of social liberty and habits of industry. Their maritime situation pointed out the path by which that industry could most successfully pursue its object, and the Dutch became, what the Americans lately were, the carriers of Europe. The United Provinces were now the grand magazine of the continent, and goods were sometimes purchased here cheaper than in the countries where they were produced. But though the Dutch traded with every part of the world, their intercourse with particular nations was carried on chiefly by separate ports, which thus became remarkable for what was called their particular staple. According to Sir William Temple, Flushing was distinguished by the West Indian trade; Middleburg for French wines; Ferwerd by the Scottish staple; Dort by the English staple, and Rhenish wines; Rotterdam by the English and Scotch trade at large, and by French wines; Leyden by the manufacture of all sorts of stuffs, silk, hair, gold, and silver; Haerlem by linen, mixed stuffs, and flowers; Delft by beer, and Dutch porcelain; Saardam by the building of ships; Enchuysen and Maeslandsluys by the herring fishing; Friesland by the Greenland trade; and Amsterdam by that of the East Indies, Spain, and the Mediterranean.—The trade of Holland fast rose upon the ruins of that of Antwerp and Portugal; and the commerce of England being yet in its infancy presented no rival to Dutch enterprise. Meanwhile, the merchants of Antwerp, disgusted by the oppressive measures of Philip II. of Spain, expatriated themselves, and settled in great numbers at Amsterdam; where, having correspondence with most of the trading cities, they began to fit out ships, to revive, if possible, that general commerce which they had formerly carried on from Antwerp. But as that was impracticable, without dealing in East Indian commodities, they attempted

the method of sending vessels under neutral colours to purchase them at the port of Lisbon, then under the dominion of Spain. But the Spanish ministers soon put an entire stop to this traffic, by confiscating the Dutch ships at Lisbon and imprisoning their seamen. The Dutch, thus deprived of all hopes of obtaining Indian commodities through neutral bottoms, were forced to betake themselves to the direct trade with India; and it has been observed by one of their writers, that if the Spaniards had not seized their ships, and exposed their persons to the rigour of the inquisition, they had probably never extended their navigation beyond the Baltic, the Mediterranean, and the countries of France, England, and Spain. They first attempted a passage to India by the N. E. but failed, as all others have done since. While thus fruitlessly engaged, a new and unexpected accident turned their thoughts quite another way. One of their seamen, named Cornelius Houtman, was amongst the number of those who were seized at Lisbon, in 1594. This man possessed an enterprising genius, and being allowed some liberty in his captivity, he employed it in conversing with the Portuguese, and in making inquiries as to the route they held in their East India voyages, the places to which they traded, and their manner of dealing with the natives; and thus obtained a fund of information, before the Spanish government were aware of his intentions. On his return to Amsterdam, he was appointed commander of the first Dutch ships that were fitted out for the Indian commerce, which sailed, four in number, from the Texel, in 1595, and returned in two years and four months after a prosperous voyage. This success animated the Dutch to more extensive enterprises; and the foundation of the Dutch East India company was laid on the 20th of March 1602, by a charter from the States. A capital of 6,600,000 florins was subscribed, and divided into 22,000 shares of 3000 florins, being 500 pounds Flemish, or somewhat less than £250 sterling. Of this capital, more than one-half was subscribed by the city of Amsterdam; a sixth by Zeeland; and Delft, Rotterdam, Hoorn, and Enchuysen, subscribed the rest. Having wrested the Spice Islands out of the hands of the Portuguese, this company soon became rich and powerful by the acquisition; and enjoyed the monopoly of the spice-trade for more than 100 years. In the course of eight years from their first establishment, they augmented their capital to 30,000,000 florins; and such was the growing prosperity of the company, that the original shares rose to 1000 per cent.; or, in other words, a share of 3000 florins, was actually sold for 30,000 florins. The value of Indian stock fluctuated much according to political circumstances. Before the war of 1672, it was sold at the rate of 650 per cent.; during that war it fell to 250 per cent. and rose again after the peace. The dividends in latter times did not indeed equal those in the earlier stages of that commerce; but taking it upon an average, the proprietors divided annually 20 per cent. upon their capital, from the first date of their charter. In the course of 130 years, the company divided a sum of 130 millions of florins, or more than £18,000,000 sterling. The annual profits of the Indian commerce, were estimated at 12,700,000 florins; and the trade of Japan yielded 2,000,000 florins more. It was always a part of their mercantile policy, never to overstock the market with Indian commodities, that the sales might not lower the price too much; they even sometimes burnt great quantities of spices upon this principle, and limited the growth of the spice-plants, in the Spice Islands, that no more might be brought to market than was just sufficient to satisfy the demand. The Dutch East India Company have enjoyed the sole

monopoly of the trade to Japan, since the expulsion of their hated rivals the Portuguese, and the utter extirpation of the Japanese converts. They obtained this monopoly by means the most disgraceful to their character as Christians; and maintain it by submitting to the most abject compliances with Japanese tyranny and jealousy. The Indian commerce, when in its zenith, employed 15,000 sailors in constant pay; and 180 ships, from 30 to 60 guns, were stationed as a naval force in different ports to protect their commerce. The States General derived a great revenue from the company,—a duty of 3 per cent. being laid upon all exports, bullion excepted; and at every renewal of the charter a handsome bonus was given, sometimes amounting to several millions of guilders. The Dutch West India Company was incorporated in 1621, but the shares did not pay nearly so well as those of the East India Company,—the proprietors dividing no more upon their stock than 2½ per cent. The Dutch West India islands, though of little consequence as agricultural colonies, were of much use to the national trade. The general neutrality of Holland in the wars between France, Spain, and England, caused the otherwise insignificant islands of Curacoa and St Eustatia to become the general depots of the produce of the French and Spanish West Indies, from whence it was shipped under the Dutch flag for Europe. Of the Dutch colonies on the continent of America, Surinam alone was of consequence for its exports of sugar, coffee, and cotton. Besides other objects, the Dutch settlements on the west coasts of Africa supplied above 12,000 slaves annually. But when the adventitious circumstances that favoured the Dutch power and wealth, gradually ceased to operate, their trade and commerce began to decline. The French, the Danes, the Swedes, and above all the English, became their rivals in the commerce of the East; and increasing competition narrowed their sales and diminished their profits. Even in the days of Sir W. Temple, their commerce was beginning to decline in consequence of the peace of Munster, in 1648, by which other nations were left at liberty to follow their own interests, and apply themselves to commerce. But the greatest blow to their trade was occasioned by the insane policy of the Louvestein faction, which successively embroiled them with the most powerful of all their commercial rivals,—Great Britain. The opposition of that party to the Stadtholder, and their jealousy of Great Britain and Prussia as his partisans, naturally led them to look to France for support; and when the French, having successfully defeated the allies, were on the very borders of the country, to throw themselves completely into the arms of France. This infatuated act consummated the ruin of Dutch trade; as it necessarily involved Holland in a war with her powerful commercial rival, which gradually but rapidly annihilated her foreign commerce, and destroyed her once powerful navy, which in 1784 consisted of 40 ships of from 50 to 70 guns, 43 frigates, and 11 sloops of war. The empire which the Dutch, by extraordinary valour, policy, and enterprise, had founded in the East, upon the ruin of the Portuguese power, but which they had maintained by a system at once sordid and cruel, was overthrown, and nothing was retained of what had been gained by the wisdom and courage of a Broeck, a Koen, a Hulst, and a Spielman, but the melancholy remembrance of what they had lost.

Present State of Dutch Trade and Commerce.] United in an independent State, with the population doubled by the accession of the Belgic provinces and Liege, the colonies restored, and the monopoly of the East Indian company abolished, there is every reason to believe that the com-

merce of the northern and southern provinces of this kingdom will again revive. The manufactures of this country still exceed, both in the number of hands which they employ, and the excellence of their productions, those of any other country except Britain. The Dutch linens are still unrivalled in beauty; and several thousand families are supported by the manufacture of the matchless thread-lace of Brussels and Mechlin. Woollen manufactures have greatly declined, but are still extensively produced in Verviers, Eupen, Hodemont, Leyden, and Utrecht. The cloth of Liege rivals that of England; and at Brussels and Doornick there are extensive manufactures of the finest carpets. Cotton goods are chiefly manufactured at Ghent, Brussels, Bruges, Doornick, and Antwerp. Haarlem and Amsterdam retain silk-manufactures; Leyden, Alkmaar, and Liege, extensive tanneries. The tobacco and snuff-manufactures of Amsterdam and Rotterdam employ 24,000 persons, and the fabrication of tobacco-pipes in the town of Gouda alone occupies 5000 hands. There are 70 sugar-refiners in Amsterdam, 18 in Rotterdam, 12 in Dort, and several others in Antwerp, Ghent, and Ostend. The breweries are numerous, but are inferior in scale to the distilleries which supply that corn-spirit which, when flavoured with juniper berries, is known throughout the world by the name of Geneva or gin. In a country where there are so few mines, the manufacture of hardware must be inconsiderable; but the cutlery and fire-arms of Liege are much esteemed. At Brussels there is a large manufactory of carriages. The inland trade with Germany, by the canals and the Rhine, was the only branch that escaped the ravages of war, and may even now be regarded as considerable. Of this, the most remarkable feature consists in the vast floats of timber, which arrive at Dort from Andernach and other places on the Rhine. The length of each raft is from 700 to 1000 feet, the breadth from 50 to 90 feet; 500 labourers guide the floating island, and the navigation is conducted with the strictest regularity. On their arrival at Dort, the sale of one raft occupies several months, and frequently produces more than £30,000 sterling; the other branches of inland traffic still remain; and the Rhine may be said to supply Holland with insular advantages, safe from the depredations of maritime war.[6] In 1790, out of 9,734 ships which passed the Sound 2,009 were Dutch. Since 1815, the average number of vessels that have passed the Sound under the Netherland flag, has amounted to about 1,600 annually. At present the external commerce amounts to about £10,000,000 per annum, and the annual produce of manufactures throughout the kingdom to nearly £12,000,000.

Monies, Weights, and Measures.] In the Dutch provinces accounts are kept in pfenningers, stivers, gilders, and ducats. A pfenninger is the sixteenth part of a stiver, which is equal in value to about 1d. British currency. The gilder or florin contains 20 stivers, or 2 Flemish groats, and is worth 1s. 9d. sterling. The gold ducat is equal to 20 florins, or £1 16s. sterling. In Belgium the greater part of the currency is French

[6] *The Bulletin des Sciences* gives the number of ships which arrived at the following ports in 1827:—

Amsterdam,	1982
Rotterdam,	1731
Antwerp,	831
Harlingen,	457
Dort,	202

In the same year, 252 vessels belonging to the Netherlands, entered the port of Dantzic, and 6 that of Elbing.

money.—The common weight of commerce is the schippoond of 3 cwt. There are 19 Dutch miles in a degree of the equator. The Amsterdam foot contains 125.5 French lines, and the Rheinland foot 139.6 French lines.

CHAP. IV.—POPULATION—MANNERS AND CUSTOMS—RELIGION—LITERATURE—STATE OF EDUCATION.

Population.] The population of the United Netherlands in 1820, was 5,642,552; and in 1827, 6,059,566, of whom 1,690,000 were Dutch, 145,000 Frisians, 300,000 Germans, 3,360,000 Walloons or Belgians, and 80,000 Jews. The proportion of deaths to births in this population, is nearly as 27 to 43.8, or as 1 to 0.6164. The mean increase of population in 5 years, has been $\frac{67}{1000}$ of the total population, or about $\frac{1}{75}$ in one year. The annual proportion of marriages to the population for the whole kingdom is as one to 132; but a considerable difference is observable here betwixt the Catholic and Protestant provinces, for while in the former there is 1 marriage among every 148 souls, in the latter there is 1 in every 123 souls. The proportion of male births to that of females, is stated by M. Verhulst to be as 1000 to 947 in this country; in France it is as 1000 to 938; and in Naples as 1000 to 956.

The Dutch.] The Dutch may be divided into the Dutch properly so called, and the Frises who speak Dutch and Frisian, which two languages are derived from the German. The Dutch is the written language; the Frisian is a rare dialect, still spoken in a part of Friesland, but daily disappearing. The Dutch, considered as a nation, and overlooking some local distinctions between the provinces, are a vigorous people, hardened against the influence of climate, and capable of long and severe exertion. Their temperament is phlegmatic in the extreme; their passions are not violent, but when once excited are apt to run into every excess. They are easily led by reason, especially when treated with gentleness; but are reserved and rather distant, dull in their general demeanour, and of a grave and heavy appearance. One of the latest and best-informed travellers in Holland, has thus admirably sketched the Dutch character: "The national sobriety and quietude of the Dutch is painted on every face you meet. Young boys are as staid and as cautious as the men of other countries; and even the pretty damsels one encounters have their very smiles checked—if not clouded—by habitual sedativeness. Under this snowy mantle, at first so cold and so repulsive, there is much to admire and to love—much to study and to learn. It is difficult to penetrate into the domestic arcana; but once admitted, a Dutch house is the temple—the neat and quiet temple—of peace and happiness. Few compliments are wasted there, even upon the visitor, who cannot see the workings of the social system unless he be on such terms of intimacy as not to disturb it by his presence. Yet no people are more alive to the opinions of others than the Dutch; and many instances of extreme and unreasonable sensitiveness have fallen under my observation. As a people they have been vituperated by this witling and that poetaster, who have thought it a grand exploit to wound the feelings of a whole country, as Voltaire did, by some light and frivolous jest. I do not think the Dutch are liberal in precisely the same way that some other nations may be. They look more closely at their daily expenditure; they do, and suffer to be done, many little things which

appear strange, perhaps mean, if tried by our standard. But there is no selfishness in this. The social rule is rather different from our own. Their frugality has nothing in it of an unfair and over-reaching spirit. They watch their gains closely, gather them up industriously, part with them sparingly; they make an habitual application of the proverb, 'Waste not, want not,' and 'a penny saved is a penny got,' would seem to be written on their philacteries. They have studied 'Poor Richard' like a third commandment-tablet, and have made his maxims their rule of life. There is nothing offensive in their thriftiness,—nothing to outrage others,—nothing to warrant a harsh word, far less a malevolent thought. If their doors are frequently shut to the stranger, who gives them reason to suppose he despises them, the best thing the stranger can do is to pass on in silence: or, at least, to pass on without misrepresenting what takes place within those walls which he has never entered. But touch the Netherlander's affections with kindness and equal feeling,—he is of sterling, of essential excellence,—calm and strong minded, sensible and social; and I would hope the honest evidence of one who knows them may weigh for something against the frivolous impertinencies of many who do not." The same traveller asserts, "There is in Holland a strong English feeling; a deeply-rooted, widely-extended affection for Great Britain; an intense conviction, that the interests of the two countries are and ought to be closely interwoven. It would be easy to fan and foster their national charities, for the well-being of both, and we, the English, the prouder and the stronger, should give the example; from us it would come with grace and unction; we owe, in the wide world, many debts of beneficence, and something to Holland, even from the days of old. Now, why should we not liberalise our commercial system in her favour? I believe, she would reciprocate the good with the eagerness of cordiality." Sobriety, cleanliness, economy, industry, and perseverance, are characteristic features of the Dutch. They not only keep the interior of their dwellings scrupulously clean, but the very outside of their habitations is washed regularly. Potatoes, salt-meat, and fish form their principal food. Brandy, particularly gin, beer, tea, and coffee are favourite beverages. They will sometimes drink 20 or 30 small cups of coffee or tea in one afternoon.[7] Smoking is very general even among women of the lower classes. In winter, skaiting is one of the chief amusements of all ranks, and in this art the Dutch are unequalled. Indeed, at this season skaiting becomes almost the only mode of passing from one place to another,—the country being intersected with canals, rivers, and arms of the sea, which are generally all frozen. In Holland, therefore, it is rather a necessary accomplishment, than a mere source of pleasure. The senator gravely skates to the assembly of which he is a member, and the milkmaid skates to market with the produce of her dairy. Theatres and tea-gardens are frequented by those who are in quest of amusement. The expenses of living in Holland may, on an average, be calculated at about two-thirds of the cost in England. An excellent house may be rented at about £50 per year, and the family comforts of half-a-dozen persons, with their servants, be provided for £300 per annum. Some taxes fall heavily, both personal and domestic;

[7] The coffee consumed annually in the whole United Netherlands, is, according to the latest calculations, 32,000,000 of English pounds, (29,107,800 demi-kilogrammes), which, for a population of 6,000,000, gives $5\frac{1}{3}$ pounds for each person, man, woman, and child—an extraordinary quantity. In Britain, the coffee consumed annually by 23,000,000 of persons, is only about 15,000,000 pounds.

but the duties on consumption are generally small. Excellent tea can be bought in retail at 2s. per lb.; wine is about one-third and spirits one-fourth of the price with us. There is not much that can be called splendour, and even the high officers of State seldom give expensive entertainments. In fact, their salaries would hardly admit of their doing so. There is much resemblance to our English mode of life; at breakfast, however, cheese is generally introduced. At dinner, the dishes are all set upon the table, and removed, one after another, to be carved and handed round by the servants. The ladies and gentlemen retire together after dinner to take coffee and *chasse café*, and afterwards tea is introduced. The charms of Dutch women swiftly ripen, and swiftly decay. An incumbrance of garments, soft beds, the use of charcoal or turf-fires, introduced into perforated boxes, which they employ as foot-stools, soon make sad ravages with a fair face. The dampness of the climate is some excuse for such indulgences; but they are bought at too heavy a cost. The Dutch ladies make excellent wives and mothers; they carefully watch over their domestic concerns—they nurse their own children, and give them early instruction. Marriages in Holland are merely civil obligations, which require no ecclesiastical sanction to give them validity. A week or two before the intended consummation, notice is given to the Burgomaster; the certificates of baptism, and the consent of the parents (when that consent is necessary), are deposited with the magistrate, and on the day fixed the parties attend with their friends in the Town-hall, and the article of the code is read, which records the obligations of the marriage condition; then the Burgomaster asks, in a loud voice, whether the parties consent to fulfil the matrimonial obligations, and on their answering "yes," or bowing the head in assent, he declares the marriage valid. The Protestants sometimes proceed to the house of the *Dominie* or minister to ask his blessing; and sometimes the Burgomaster himself accompanies the civil ceremony with a word of advice, or a friendly benediction. As marriage is one of the sacraments of the Roman Church, the rite is not completed, if the parties are Catholics, until the following Sunday, when they confess themselves, and partake of the Lord's Supper.

The Belgians.] The Belges or Belgians, the inhabitants of the southern provinces of the United Netherlands—among whom also the inhabitants of Liege and Luxemburg must be reckoned—speak partly Flemish and partly the Walloon language. The former dialect is chiefly used in Flanders, North Brabant, and a part of South Brabant; the latter in the remainder of South Brabant, Hainault, Namur, Liege, and a part of Limburg. French and German are also generally spoken, at least by the higher classes, in most of the towns. The Flemish language has the principal features of the Dutch with some mixture of French; the Walloon is a corrupted dialect of French. The Belges are in their exterior, in their manner of living, and in many characteristics much like to the Dutch; they are as sober and persevering,—as laborious and fond of commerce,—as heavy and phlegmatic; yet the two nations have different languages, different religion, and different politics; and in spite of their present union under one government, there exists a most decided national hatred between them. The Belgians are bigotted to an extreme,—the Dutch are not; the Belgians like all that is French,—the Dutch are more inclined to German customs. The Belgians are jealous of their rights and independence, and have been much irritated by the unfair treatments which they have always experienced from the Dutch in commercial matters. Be-

sides these two principal nations there are in the Netherlands a considerable number of Frenchmen, Germans, and Jews.

Religion.] While the religion of the late seven United Provinces is Protestantism in the Calvinistic form, both as to doctrine, worship, and government,—that of the Netherlands properly so called, is Roman Catholicism. Various attempts were indeed made to introduce the principles of the Reformation into this quarter of the United Netherlands, but without success. However, in spite of all the endeavours of the Jesuits, the majority of the Flemish Catholics adopted the sentiments of Michael Baius, a doctor of Louvain, and Cornelius Jansen, bishop of Ypres, respecting predestination and grace. Under the milder sway of the House of Austria, the Protestants enjoyed a toleration. The Flemings are, in general, very zealous and ignorant Catholics, much under the influence of their clergy, who are possessed of vast wealth and immense revenues. The bishopric of Liege swarms with clergymen; and has been called 'the paradise of priests.' The declaration of the king of the United Netherlands, establishing religious freedom, the entire liberty of the press, the admission of all into civil and political employments whatever be their religious belief, and the exclusion of the clergy and prelates from political power, by not allowing them a seat in the States-general, much irritated the Catholic clergy, and produced a strong remonstrance to his majesty, which however happily failed in its object. There are about 3,500,000 Catholics, including Jansenists, in the United Netherlands. On the 17th of September 1826 his holiness, by an allocution pronounced in full consistory, explained the Concordat lately concluded with the king of the Netherlands, in substitution of that formerly made by 'Pius VII. of happy memory, with him who at that time held the Government of France.' The subjects of the Concordat are to give the benefit of its operations to the Northern provinces of Belgium; to allow a chapter and a seminary for each diocese; and to regulate the election of bishops on vacancies, which is to be made by the chapter, and confirmed by the Pope, but if his holiness shall object to the nominee, the chapters are to proceed to a new election.

Their brethren in Holland have all along acted a quite different part; for from the first foundation of the Dutch republic, the door of religious toleration was thrown open to all religious sects. No man had any reason in this republic to complain of being oppressed on account of his religious principles, nor could he hope by means of religion to form a political party in the States; and therefore in Holland men lived together as citizens of the world, their religious differences made none in their social relations, and they were associated together by the common ties of humanity and bonds of peace under the impartial protection of the State. The religious system of Calvin however was publicly adopted in 1571;[8] and by the

[8] The articles of the national creed, 37 in number, are contained in the Belgic Confession of Faith, drawn up in 1571, and are entirely Calvinistic. However, the divines of Holland were not bound by any express law to conform their sentiments to those that were publicly taught and inculcated at Geneva; and, consequently, many of them received and taught these doctrines, with considerable modifications and restrictions. They were divided into two classes, namely, supra-lapsarians or ante-lapsarians, and sub or post-lapsarians. These differences were, however, almost merely verbal, and affected not so much the nature, as the mode or manner of representing and explaining the doctrine of the divine decrees. A most deplorable schism, however, took place amongst them about the beginning of the 17th century, through the instrumentality of James Arminius, or Jacob Harmensen or Hermann. This eminent personage was born in 1560, and received his education at Geneva; but very early in life he began to be offended at the doctrines of absolute decrees, unconditional election, and partial re-

articles of union, in 1579, it was stipulated that Calvinists only should enjoy the principal offices of state, and that the Protestant system should be maintained. The States of Holland, more zealous than the rest, in 1583, proposed that no other form of Protestantism but Calvinism should be tolerated; happily however for the country this proposal was over-ruled. By the eruption of the French into Holland, the Dutch ecclesiastical government was dissolved, and the established clergy or Calvinists deprived of their stipends which were wont to be paid by the State. The same fate befel the professors of the universities. But the late revolution has placed religion in Holland in the same state as before; and Calvinism

demption, as he was pleased to term the doctrine of particular redemption. The change of his opinions began to evidence itself, in 1591, in a letter to Grynæus; and when desired by Balthasar Lydius in 1595, to write a defence of the supra-lapsarian tenets of Theodore Beza, instead of complying with the request he fell into the contrary extreme. In 1598, he entered the lists of controversy with the learned and pious Mr Perkins, of Cambridge, and afterwards with Francis Junius or Young, professor of theology at Leyden. Upon the death of Junius, in 1602, Arminius, contrary to the judgment of the presbytery of Amsterdam, was raised by the influence of his party to the theological chair, after a public conference with Gomarus, in which he declared his acquiescence in the received doctrine. In order to lull suspicion, he undertook to defend what before he had attacked, in public disputations. But in a year or two after, he publicly maintained the contrary; and did not conduct himself with that ingenuous candour, which becomes an honest inquirer after truth; for while, in order to save appearances, he taught Calvinism in the divinity hall, he privately, in manuscript, and in his own chamber, inculcated his own peculiar views on the students. His disciples daily increased; and being supported by the faction of Oldenbarneveldt, or the Louvestein party, who cunningly fomented these divisions, in order to lessen the power of the House of Orange, which they maintained was dangerous to the republic, they prevented the calling of a national synod, and made use of every evasion to hinder the ecclesiastical courts from taking cognizance of this business. The breach became wider every day, but Arminius died in 1609, at the juncture when his sentiments were beginning to involve his country in contention and discord.

Arminius, however, left able and determined defenders, who carried on the polemical warfare against the Gomarists, as the Calvinists were then called, from their great leader Gomarus, a man of multifarious erudition, and the powerful and resolute antagonist of Arminius. The Arminians claimed toleration; conferences were repeatedly held between the conflicting parties, first at the Hague in 1611, and at Delft, in 1613; and a pacific exhortation was issued by the States of Holland, exhorting to peace and charity. But the conferences were ineffectual, and the exhortations were vain. The Calvinists were daily more firmly persuaded that the latitudinarian tenets of the Arminians tended to the introduction of Socinianism, and the subversion of all religious truth; and hence censured the magistrates with warmth and freedom for interposing their authority in matters in which they had no concern, and which properly came under the jurisdiction of the church and not that of the civil magistrate. If we are to judge from the conduct of the Arminians in latter times, and the opinions of their leading men, as Grotius, Vorstius, Episcopius, Curcellæus, Le Clerc, and Wetstein—who have all more or less verged to Socinian and Arian tenets, and especially Vorstius, the successor of Arminius, who died a confirmed Socinian, in 1622—it is manifest that the suspicions of the Calvinists were but too well-founded, and that the Arminians meant a great deal more than they at first expressed. At length, upon the downfall of the Louvestein party, headed by Oldenbarneveldt, Uytenbogard, Hoogeberts, and Hugo Grotius, the Arminians lost their protectors, and the Calvinists obtained their wish of having the whole matter in dispute referred to a National Synod, which was accordingly held at Dort, on the 13th of November, 1618, and sat till the 9th of May, 1620. As might be expected, from a synod who were all Calvinists, the Arminians were condemned; and their tenets being declared contrary to the word of God and the confessions and catechisms of the whole reformed churches, they were deprived of all their churches, and banished the United Provinces. The canons of the synod were approved by the States-general, as also the Belgic confession, and the Palatine catechism, formerly made use of in the Netherlands for the instruction of youth. All professors of theology, candidates for the ministry, and elders of the church, were ordained to sign these canons, and their acquiescence in the doctrines there maintained; thus Calvinism was, by a solemn act, declared the religion of the State, in opposition to Arminianism. The Arminians, however, upon the death of Prince Maurice, obtained a toleration under his milder successor, Prince Henry Frederic, in 1625; and have always since been recognized as a distinct sect, having their own ministers, congregations, and professors. Their congregations are not numerous, amounting only to 84; besides a church at Frederickstadt, in the duchy of Holstein.

therefore must still be regarded as the national form of religious belief. Ecclesiastical persons are divided into four ranks, professors at universities, ministers, elders, and deacons; and the government of the church is administered by consistories, classes (or presbyteries), and synods. The consistory is the lowest court, commonly consisting of the clergy and elders of a particular town. A class consists of deputies from several towns, and is commonly assembled thrice a-year,—a part of its duty being to visit the churches and watch over the conduct of the clergy. The synods are either national or provincial; the last being assembled yearly,—while the other is only summoned on the most important occasions, when essential doctrines are to be discussed; as in the case of the synod of Dort before mentioned. The following table shows the number of synods, classes, and pastors, of the Dutch reformed church.

Provincial Synods.	Classes.	Ministers.
1. Synod of Guelderland, ...	9	285
2. ——— Southern Holland, . . .	11	331
3. ——— Northern do. . . .	6	220
4. ——— the Congregation of Zeeland, .	4	163
5. ——— Utrecht, ...	3	79
6. ——— Friesland, ...	6	207
7. ——— Overyssel, ...	4	84
8. ——— Gröningen, &c.	7	161
9. ——— Drenthe, ...	3	40
Total,	53	1570

There are, besides, numerous Walloon churches, belonging to Flemish Protestants, scattered throughout the provinces, who hold a kind of synod twice a year, composed of deputies from their own sect. With these, as they spoke the French language, the French Protestants, who fled here for safety after the revocation of the edict of Nantz, associated. They have a seminary at Amsterdam for the education of their preachers in theology, &c. The other chief sects are the Lutherans, amounting to 320,000; the Baptists or Mennonites, amounting to 115,000, who have a seminary at Amsterdam for training their preachers in literature and philosophy, under the inspection of the body, and a professor of theology, who presides in the institution; and the Remonstrants amounting to 38,000. The German and Portuguese Jews in Holland amount to 80,000, and have several synagogues at Amsterdam; there are also Quakers, Armenians, and Greeks.

Literature.] Dutch literature begins with the 14th century. Towards the 15th, the language became more cultivated by translations of the Bible, by frequent controversy, and popular works and poetry. Gansfort and Agricola at Gröningen were among the first who distinguished themselves as theologians. Erasmus of Rotterdam, the great restorer of literature in the western world, contributed by his elegant satirical works and solid information to bring about the great reformation in the church; yet he died in the bosom of that very church whose gross corruptions he satirized, being too timid and irresolute to become a decided reformer like his great cotemporary Luther. A much more extensive genius was Hugo de Groot, or Grotius, who, in the beginning of the 17th century, embraced with his vast mind the whole subjects of philology, archæology, poetry, history, theology, and jurisprudence. For a long time the northern provinces had no university. That of Louvain supplied the whole of the Netherlands. But in 1575, prince William of Orange founded a university at Leyden to reward the town for its gallant resistance against the Spaniards;

and this university soon rose to great celebrity throughout Europe. At the head of the Dutch jurisconsults we must place Hugo Grotius, who is followed by Voet, Wiquefort, Noodt, Heineccius, Vinnius, Bynkershoek, Keessel, Cras, and the present Meyer de Rhoer, Van Hall, and Van der Spyk. In medicine the celebrated Boerhaave was followed by Clusius, Tulp, Camper, Van Swieten, Van Royen, Albinus, Gaubius, Van Doeveren, and the great anatomist Ruysch. The arts of pharmacy and surgery are well-cultivated in Holland. The pantheist Spinoza, has been succeeded by less acute but less sceptical philosophers, among whom Franz Hemsterhuis is distinguished by his fine taste and intimate acquaintance with the Socratic philosophy: he has written in French however. Snellius, Huygens, Z. Jansen, Drebbel, Harsöker, Houk, Brounker, Gelder, Strabbe, and Kanter are distinguished names in mathematical science; and Coehorn was the Vauban of Holland. In natural philosophy the Dutch have Muschenbroek, Camper, Gravesande, and Van Swieten; in natural history, Leuwenhoek, Graaf, Swammerdam, Lyonet, and Berkhey; and in chemistry Boerhaave. In history, Hooft is regarded as the Tacitus of Holland; and Dousa, Junius, Vossius, Merula, Pontan, Waganaer, and Meermann, have enriched the historical literature of the country. In theology, Gomarus, Voethus, the Spanheims, Witsius, Mastricht, Desmanetz, Hoornbeck, Leidekker, Vitringa, Venema, Lampe, Arminius and Cocceius are most distinguished names. Erasmus, Dousa, Heinsius, Baudius, Rutgersius, Van Santen, Schultens, Grævius, Gronovius, Ruhnken, the Burmanns, Valkenaer, Perigonius, Tromius, Wesselin, Wythenbuch, Hoogenen, Drakenborch, and Hemsterhuis, form a splendid list of Dutch philologians. The Dutch geographical writers of merit, are Jansen, Bleau, Varenius, Moll, and Reland, and their voyagers and travellers have greatly enriched the science by their discoveries. Lambert, Kramer, Van Moerbeek, Halma, Weidenbach, and Weiland, have written grammars and dictionaries of their mother-tongue. Notwithstanding, however, of this imposing array of names, there is a poverty of Dutch literature; many of their most popular books are mere imitations of German, French, and English authors. Dutch poetry began to be successfully cultivated in the 17th century; several productions of that period are distinguished by great strength and beauty of style and language. Between 1640 and 1750, the national theatre was very much cultivated, and till the latter period the Dutch were richer in original dramatic works than the Germans. Among the dramatic poets of this epoch were Jan Von der Doos, Daniel Heinsius, Peter Cornelius Van Hooft, Jacob Catz, and Joost Van der Vondel. Lyric and satiric poetry have been written by Constantine Huygens, John Van der Veen, and John Adolphus Dans. An epic poem entitled 'William the Third,' was written by Lucas Rotgans of Amsterdam. Among the more recent poets are Hieronymus de Bosch, Klijn, Kleinhoff Bilderdyk, Helmers, Van Hall, Tollens, and Gysbeck. Dutch prose has little claim to harmony and elegance; but is very well fitted to convey useful truths in a plain and intelligible manner. Holland cannot be deemed a very literary country; yet its popular writers find a much greater proportion of readers among the population than the best of our authors. Gottens, for example—a very agreeable and attractive poet—has sold 10,000 copies of the last collection of his poems, in three volumes; and Van der Palm disposed of nearly 4,000 copies of his translation of the Bible, though the cost was 35 florins, or £3 English, and realized a profit of above £5000 sterling. The poetry of Gottens

resembles that of Cowper in many respects. It is not highly imaginative—seldom sublime, but it touches all the chords of common sympathy. He has lately been converted from Catholicism to Protestantism. Van der Palm is equally distinguished as a writer and as an orator. He must be deemed one of the very best prosaists in the Dutch language, and undoubtedly the best of the present time. The great proportion of books printed in Holland are translations from the German; for though the instances mentioned are very remarkable evidences of the great demand for the writings of popular men, these instances are undoubtedly exceptions to the more common rule. The editions ordinarily published consist of 1,100 copies; sometimes of only 550, but very rarely of less. Of a smaller work of Van der Palm—*A Bible History for Youth*—6,000 copies have been sold. But of some of the best writers in Holland—such as Van Hosden, of Utrecht, and Van Henness, of Amsterdam, scarcely any thing exists except in tracts, or scattered over the periodicals. The Dutch periodicals are numerous, but far from valuable.—The laws are severe against pirated editions; the censorship was abolished by a decree of 1814; but authors and editors are responsible for their works, and a law was promulgated in 1816 against printers or editors of periodical works, censuring the measures of foreign governments in a libellous manner.

State of Education.] In the Netherlands, of the entire population of 6,148,286 souls, the number receiving education in the elementary schools in 1825–26 was 633,859, and in the colleges and Latin schools, 7,038. The proportion of students of the respective branches of learning in the six universities, in the season 1825–26, were: of theology, 325; of law, 807; of medicine, 374; of the natural sciences, 226; of philosophy and literature, 904. The Catholic clergy have very little information in general; there are, however, some honourable exceptions to this remark. The protestant clergy stand in general on a much higher level.

Establishments for Education.] All establishments for education stand under a particular department of the ministry. There are six universities in the United Kingdom: viz. three in the northern provinces, at Leyden, Utrecht, and Gröningen; and three in the southern, at Ghent, Liege, and Louvain. Each university has five faculties: viz. theology, law, medicine, physical and mathematical science, and philosophy and literature. Athenæums or gymnasiums are established at several places, as at Amsterdam and Franeker, but they have not the right of conferring degrees. Besides these colleges, there are a great number of high schools; and elementary schools have been established in all the towns and villages. There are also military and marine schools, and deaf and dumb institutions. Mechanics' institutions are becoming very generally diffused over the Netherlands; and the government has endowed professorships in the universities for teaching the application of mechanics to the useful arts, while the public have not been slow in availing themselves of such advantages. Many excellent works, the fruit of these lectures, have appeared, among which the *Leçons de Mecanique*, by M. Dandelin, are particularly remarkable. There are between 60 and 70 associations for literary and scientific purposes in this kingdom, among which are the royal institution of sciences and the fine arts at Amsterdam, the royal academy of sciences at Brussels, and the royal academy of painting at Antwerp. The latter is the most ancient in the Netherlands, and must be considered as the cradle of the Flemish school and many others. Public libraries are found in those towns where are universities and gymnasiums; one of the richest is at Ghent, and

there is another at Brussels with 80,000 volumes; Utrecht, Leyden, and the Hague possess botanical gardens, museums, and collections of paintings.

Fine Arts.] Architecture has not many distinguished masters to show except Van Campen, and it is the same with sculpture; but painting has been cultivated with great success in the Netherlands, as well as several branches of engraving. In painting the northern and southern provinces rival each other, and each of them have their peculiar schools. That of the S. is known under the name of the *Flemish*, and that of the N. under the name of the *Dutch school.* The Dutch begins with Lucas Van Leyden, born in 1409, and is distinguished by faithful imitations of nature. The most distinguished painters of this school are Rembrandt, Van der Werft, Wouvermann, Huysum, Gerhard Dow, Mieris, Ruisdael, Ostade, Van der Neer, Van der Velde, &c. The Flemish school is distinguished by brilliant colouring,—by a grandness of composition, noble forms, and a strong but natural expression,—by a magical effect of light and shadow, but faulty drawing. The founder of this school is Johann Van Eyck, born at Maaseyck in the 14th century. He is the restorer of oil-panting. To this school belong Francis Floris born in 1520, called the Flandrish Raphael, Peter Breughel and his two sons John and the so-called Höllen Breughel, (Hellish Breughel) Peter Paul Rubens, who raised the Flemish school to its highest pitch, a man of indefatigable industry and gigantic fancy, about 4,000 paintings are said to be the works of his pencil, the two Teniers, father and son, Janssen, Anton Van Dyke, called the king of portrait painters, Van der Meer, &c. After a long period of decay the school of the Netherlands has begun to revive again in both the northern and southern provinces; and among modern artists Van Os, Scheffer Pienemann, Kuipers, and Wonder, ought to be mentioned. The Dutch carry on a considerable traffic in pictures with the Chinese and other Eastern nations.[9]

CHAP. V.—GOVERNMENT—REVENUE—ARMED FORCE.

Constitution and Government.] Under the mild sway of the dukes of Burgundy, the people of Holland and the Netherlands enjoyed great privileges, and comparatively more liberty than those of other European States.

[9] The Dutch painters of the present day differ very materially from the English, not only in their method of manufacturing pictures, but also in their personal appearance. The following is an extract from the private journal of a gentleman who has lately been in Holland:—"You would be rather surprised on first entering a painting-room here. Your eye is struck with the appearance of a dozen slovenly attired fellows, who are variously engaged, some in beginning pictures, some in finishing, &c. The window, which is remarkably large, and situated so as to command a good prospect from without, admits light sufficiently to illuminate the room, or rather *shop*, which shop is at least fifteen feet long. Casting your eye up towards the ceiling, which is equally lofty with the length of the apartment, you are somewhat at a loss to account for a vast quantity of beams, cordage, pulleys, and canvasses, all appearing to have their several uses, and all kept in regular order by a man for that purpose. The canvasses, in truth, are no other than finished pictures, which have been drawn up by the pulleys to the beams for the purposes of drying, &c. The Dutch do not, as the English do, paint one picture on one cloth; no, they have a much more expeditious method. A large piece of canvass is procured, on which the artist commences his labour, and in a progressive manner begins and finishes sometimes a dozen pictures at once. In a kind of *boudoir* an attendant is employed continually in grinding colours, &c. For my own part, I own I was much amused with the great variety which this curious *coup d'œil* presented; but I could not remain long, for the painters, even while they were at work, smoked continually."

But the transference of these provinces to the Spanish branch of the Austrian family, by the marriage of the heiress of Burgundy with Maximilian of Austria, was—as we have seen—eventually unfavourable to their liberties. The Dutch, upon their revolution, erected themselves into a confederated Republic, which consisted of seven independent States, leagued together for their mutual preservation, and joined into one political body for the general good. While each State possessed a distinct government, and defrayed the expenses of its own provincial administration,—a quota, proportioned to the extent and population of each, was paid, for supporting the expenses of the confederation. The province of managing the affairs of the general confederation was intrusted to a representative assembly, called the States General, consisting, usually, of 26 persons, chosen as deputies by the Seven United Provinces; but, whatever was the number of deputies, each province had but one vote. This assembly exercised all the functions of sovereign authority, whether in peace or war. Subordinate to this, was a council of State, also composed of representatives from each province, but chosen in a different manner from those which composed the States General. This assembly proposed the means of raising the revenue, making out estimates of annual or contingent expenses, and arranging such business as was to be laid before the States General. It consisted of 12 persons, namely, 2 from Guelderland, 3 from Holland, 2 from Utrecht, while Friesland, Overyssel, and Gröningen sent one each. Subordinate to this again was the chamber of Accounts, likewise composed of provincial deputies, who audited the public accounts. The admiralty formed a separate board; and the executive part of it was managed by five colleges, in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zeeland, and Friesland. The office of *Stadtholder* bore some resemblance to that of the dictator among the Romans. The resemblance, however, only lay in this, that it was appointed in times of imminent danger, in order to communicate vigour and activity to the councils of the State. When peace was made, and the independence of Holland established by the treaty of Westphalia, the office lay dormant till the invasion of Holland in 1672, when William obtained the office to be declared hereditary in his family; but he dying without issue, it again lay dormant till 1747, when Holland being in danger from the successes of the French under marshal Saxe, the office was declared by the States General to be hereditary in the house of Orange, both in the male and female line; and the Stadtholderate continued till 1795, when the Dutch receiving the French, as their deliverers, with open arms, the Stadtholdership was abolished. After the battle of Leipsic, the Stadtholder was recalled, and a new constitution made, by which the kingdom has become a constitutional monarchy, hereditary in the male line of the house of Nassau-Orange. In August 1815, the States General of the United Netherlands were convened at the Hague by his majesty in person, who, in an address from the throne, gave an outline of the new constitution, from a report drawn up by a committee appointed for the purpose. The committee, after prefacing their report, with remarking, that the sovereignty of the United Netherlands was accepted on the express condition that the fundamental law should sufficiently guarantee personal liberty and the security of property, and, in a word, all those civil rights which characterize a people really free, proceed to state the following articles: 1*st*, That the provinces of the kingdom have been placed in the same order which existed previous to their separation by Charles V. and his successors. 2*d*, The grand duchy of Luxemburg,

though belonging to the German confederacy, is always to form a part of the kingdom of the United Netherlands. *3d*, All the guarantees of individual liberty and personal property are retained. *4th*, Every arbitrary arrest is forbidden. *5th*, If, on an urgent occasion, the government causes the arrest of an individual, he must be brought before a judge, assigned him by the law, within three days. *6th*, No one can, on any pretext whatever, be withdrawn from the jurisdiction of this judge. *7th*, The unjust penalty of confiscation is abolished. *8th*, All judicial sentences must be pronounced in public. Those in civil cases, must contain the grounds on which they are founded. In criminal cases, they must declare the circumstances of the crime, and the law applied by the judge. *9th*, No one can be deprived of his property, except for the public benefit and for a reasonable indemnity. *10th*, The abode of every subject of the king is inviolable. *11th*, The right of petitioning, duly regulated, is recognized by the law. It admits of no privileges in respect of taxes. *12th*, Every subject of the king is eligible to all employments, without distinction of birth or religious belief. *13th*, The liberty of the press will have no other restraint than the responsibility of him who writes, prints, or distributes. *14th*, The committee have placed among the first duties of the government that of protecting public instruction. *15th*, The most precious of all rights, that of liberty of conscience, is guaranteed as formally as it is possible to be. *16th*, The committee, after a lapse of ten years, propose to consider as definitive, and as making a part of the fundamental law, the dispositions of the statutes emanating from the king, or approved by him, relative to the right of electing the members of the several assemblies, and the right of sitting in them. Each State has its assemblies, which are convoked annually, or more frequently if deemed necessary by the monarch. The members are in two classes, nobles and citizens. With the assembly of the citizens or burghers rests the local administration, and jointly with the nobles the power of enacting provincial laws. A commissary, or administrator, nominated by the monarch, is joined to each assembly of the provincial States. *17th*, The present number of deputies sent by the northern provinces (the former Seven United Provinces) remains unchanged. That of the southern provinces has been regulated in an equitable manner, paying particular attention to their population, and to the proportional number of deputies by which they have already been represented. *18th*, Those members of the States General who enjoy large fortunes, whether vested in land, lent to the State, or usefully employed in supporting the national commerce, are proposed by the committee to be nominated for life, (in order to form a distinct chamber, similar to the British house of lords,) and that this nomination shall emanate from the king. The spirit of a monarchical government prescribes it, and the interest of the nation demands it. This prerogative will give the sovereign an influence over the higher classes of society, which will be useful to all. It has been the constant rule of our conduct, say the committee, and the inviolable guide of our labours, to bring our institutions to the essence of a limited monarchy. *19th*, The king proposes to the second chamber, elected by the provincial States every three years, the projects of laws which have been deliberated upon in his own council of State, the members of which are nominated by himself. *20th*, This chamber, where members are 110 in number, examines them, and having adopted them, sends them to the other chamber, to be examined there in the same manner. *21st*, The chamber, whose members are chosen for life, receives

and discusses the propositions which the other thinks it proper to make to the king. It never makes any itself. 22*d*, It adopts the proposition, and transmits it to the king, who gives or refuses his sanction. 23*d*, In order to preserve this precious advantage, the sitting of the States General shall be rendered public. This publicity, however, shall be restrained within limits, which may prevent all kinds of abuse, and remove all kinds of danger. The judges are also declared irremoveable by the executive. The committee by which the preceding articles were drawn up, consisted of 600 persons, chosen by the Dutch nation, out of a numerous list given in by the king, in proportion to the population of each of the departments. These articles were declared by royal decree of the 24th August 1815, to form the fundamental law of the country, or *Grond wet voor het Koring syk der Nederlanden.*

This new constitution has some resemblance to that of the British; but the sovereign is invested with a greater preponderance than what the British constitution allows the king of Great Britain. The second chamber, or lower house of parliament, differs considerably from our house of commons, not only in its mode of nomination, but in its functions and dignity. The members accept a petty salary, amounting to about £220; they can originate no motion; and their influence is comparatively inconsiderable. The Belgic peers—who are between 40 and 60 in number—are equally limited in their privileges, and receive a salary of £270. The king can hold no foreign crowns, nor remove the seat of government out of the kingdom. The secretary of State receives £1,670; the minister of Finance, the minister of justice, (lord chancellor), and the minister of the interior, the same sum. Governors of provinces £750; the postmaster-general about £830; the ministers of war and marine £1,250.

Revenue.] The amount of direct and indirect taxes levied on this kingdom averages about 14 Rhenish florins or 28 shillings sterling, to each individual. The annual revenue scarcely exceeds £7,000,000, and the expenditure fully equals it. Among other causes which contribute to prevent a cordial co-operation between the recently united portions of this kingdom is the public debt. This debt was almost wholly contracted by the seven United Provinces, and is principally owing to the great capitalists of Holland. The Belgians therefore feel that the Union has loaded them with more than their due burden. The amount of the debt is as follows:

	Florins.
Deferred debt on which no interest is paid, . .	1,131,000,137
Active debt, bearing interest, ...	510,000,000
Belgian debt, principally contracted by Austria, but assumed by the new government, . . .	34,466,679
	1,675,466,816

Or nearly £170,000,000 sterling, the active portion of which bears interest at 2 or 2½ per cent.

Armed Force.] The army of the Netherlands at present consists of about 62,000 men, divided into 12 battalions of infantry of the line, 17 in garrison, 3 of chasseurs, and 51 of militia. The cavalry consists of 4 divisions of cuirassiers, 2 regiments of dragoons, and 2 of hussars, besides a corps of engineers, and 9 companies of *Marechausée* or police soldiers in the southern provinces. There is a military academy at Delft. The navy at present consists of 16 men of war, and 30 frigates and smaller vessels.

CHAP. VI.—TOPOGRAPHY—NORTHERN PROVINCES.

THE most natural division of the Netherlands is into *Northern* and *Southern Provinces*. The former are 9 in number, and are divided into 32 districts and 185 cantons. They include the whole of the former Republic of Holland, with the exception of the town of Maestricht, the county of Broenhove a part of Limburg, and a part of Guelderland.

PROVINCE OF HOLLAND—*Physical Features.*] This is an entirely level country, in many districts lower than the sea, and in others only a few feet above it. On the W. side along the German ocean, natural downs or sand-hills, protect the country from the inroads of the ocean, and along the Zuydersee, and to the most northern point of Holland, this is done by dykes, which also intersect the interior of the country, and form what are called *polders*, that is, districts entirely surrounded by dykes, and from which the water is drawn by windmills and conducted into canals. The water-mill is hardly known in Britain, with the exception perhaps of the fens of Lincolnshire. It is an upright shaft turned by vanes or sails, which give motion to a wheel and pinion used for turning an Archimedean screw pump, which delivers the water at the height of 4 or 5 feet into an open drain or ditch running into the Maese. These pumps are said to lift several hundred tons of water in the course of a few hours. Several lakes and swamps have in this manner been changed into fertile polders, and now bear a rich vegetation. Near the coast the soil is sandy and sterile. The principal rivers are the Rhine and the Maese or Meuse. The Y is an arm of the sea connected with the Zuydersee. The sea or lake of Haarlem is also connected with the Y.

Climate and Productions.] The climate is damp, misty, and unhealthy; and as there is no good spring-water, rain water is generally used. The rich meadows are favourable to the rearing of cattle, which are excellent, particularly in the northern part of the province. Butter and cheese are prepared here in great quantity. Gardening has been carried to great perfection; the flowers reared here possess great beauty, and seeds and roots are sold at high prices. The principal manufactures are linen, cloth, and earthen-ware. There are also some sugar-refineries and distilleries.

Population.] The majority of the inhabitants are Calvinists, and are distinguished by many features of character from the mass of the nation. They are likewise the wealthiest, and singularly preserve at the same time the greatest simplicity of manners and customs. The dress generally consists of dark grey-coloured cloth, made into a short jacket, and vest and breeches of a somewhat singular cut. They have generally large silver buckles at their shoes and knees, and a large round full-brimmed hat. The women's hat is of straw lined with calico, measuring fully 2 feet in diameter, and answering all the purposes of an umbrella. The number of villages in this province in proportion to its extent is surprising. It is divided into the two governments of South Holland and North Holland.

The Hague, &c.] In the former of these divisions is the Hague, the residence of the king, and seat of the ministry and high court of justice. Its population is estimated at 49,000 souls. Its streets are regular, most of them are paved with light-coloured brick; and some of them are cut by canals. Palaces and fine buildings alternate here with gardens and public walks, and the number of houses amounts to about 6,200. There are a high school, several scientific and literary societies, and a French and

a Dutch theatre established here. In the neighbourhood is the royal villa of Oraniensaal, with an excellent gallery of pictures. The Hague was the birth-place of the learned Johannes Secundus, the great mathematician Chr. Huygens, and the anatomist Ruysch.—Ryswick village with 1,668 inhabitants is celebrated by the peace of 1697.—Rhynsburg, a small village of little more than 1000 inhabitants, gives its name to the *Rhynsburgian Collegiants*, a religious sect who assemble here twice a year for the purpose of celebrating the sacrament.—At Katwyk-op-zee, a village with 2,469 inhabitants, there is a very ingenious canal, long considered a master-piece of hydraulics, which conducts the old Rhine into the sea. In the neighbourhood of this stood the *Huis de Britten*, or 'house of the Brittons,' a castle said to have been built by the Romans, which was swallowed by the sea, but of which the ruins are still to be seen when the water is low.

Leyden.] The city of Leyden, situated at the distance of 4 miles from the German ocean, on the ancient bed of the Rhine, is a city of considerable antiquity. It has many handsome buildings, and particularly a church, which for magnificence is not surpassed by any in Holland. This city is said to contain 17 churches, 24 canals, 50 islands, 145 bridges, 180 streets, 3,017 houses, and 28,600 inhabitants. The number of bridges is owing to the great quantity of branches into which the ancient Rhine here divides itself. The fortifications are of brick. This city obtained deserved celebrity for its brave defence in 1574 during a siege of five months by the Spaniards. The women lined the ramparts, and performed all the duties of a soldier; and many sallies were made by them, under the conduct of a female named Kenaava. Above 10,000 persons died of disease and famine during the blockade. Just as they were on the point of capitulating, advice was brought, by means of pigeons, that relief was at hand. Accordingly on the 3d of October, the dykes of the Maese and Yssel being opened, Boissot, the admiral of Zeeland, advanced with a number of flat-bottomed boats, while the Spaniards, beholding the sudden inundation, abandoned the siege, and all the works which they had constructed to blockade the place. About 1500 of the Spaniards perished by the inundation, in the attempt to escape. In memory of this remarkable siege, medals were struck: and a spectacle of the siege is represented every seven years. In 1655, the people of Leyden were visited by the plague, which carried off 4000 persons. The University of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largest, most ancient, and famous, of all the Dutch seminaries of learning and science. Besides a library of 60,000 books, it has above 14,000 MSS., among which are 2000 Oriental MSS. The very learned Joseph Justus Scaliger, who was rector of this university, gave them 87 manuscripts; Dr Warner, 956; and the Arabic professor Golius, brought 221 from the East. There are only two endowed colleges here; the rest of the students living where they please in the city. The professors wear gowns when they give lectures; but the students have no distinct habits. Each professor, besides his fees, has a salary of £300 per annum, from the State. When in its glory, this university was frequented by above 2000 students, and has been successively furnished with able and learned professors, as Scaliger, Junius, Gomarus, Drusius, Vossius, Erpenius, Golius, Cocceius, the elder and the younger Spanheim, the elder and the younger Schultens, Witsius, Bernard de Moor, and the illustrious Boerhaave. Here is an excellent physic-garden, well-stored with scarce and valuable plants; and a long gallery where the professor of botany

reads his lectures. Its theatre for anatomy was till lately esteemed the finest in Europe. This university bore the palm for medical celebrity, till that of Edinburgh succeeded to its honours and surpassed it in fame. Leyden was the birth-place of the celebrated painters Lucas van Leyden, and Rembrandt, and also of the philosopher Muschenbroek.

Rotterdam.] The city of Rotterdam is situated at the head of an inlet on the north bank of the Maese, which here, though 20 miles above its mouth, forms a large estuary between 30 and 40 feet deep. It contains 15 churches, 6621 houses, and 66,000 inhabitants. It takes its name from the small stream called the *Rotta*, which falls into the Maese. Its trade is next to that of Amsterdam; and it is much frequented by British merchants, because its harbour, though frozen in winter, is open in spring much more early than that of Amsterdam; and the passage to it is more expeditious than that to the metropolis through the Zuydersee, so that the British merchants choose rather to despatch their vessels to Rotterdam, and to have their goods transported to Amsterdam, by small vessels upon the canals. In 1817, the number of ships which arrived in this harbour was 1,771. The city is triangular; the streets are long, but often narrow; and the pavement is commonly of brick. The greater part of the houses are built of the same materials. Every principal street has a canal of such depth that vessels of 200 or 300 tons may proceed to the owner's door, and land their cargo. The banks of the canals are planted with trees, and the whole affords a highly picturesque scene in the intermixture of trees, houses, and masts of vessels. The finest street extends along the Maese, and is called the Boomtjes. The church of St Laurence in this city has an organ 50 feet high, and an exquisite brass screen separating the nave from the choir. This city has acquired some celebrity from being the birth-place of Erasmus, one of the most elegant and classical of the Dutch writers. His statue in bronze is seen in the market-place; and the house in which he was born is distinguished by a Latin inscription. Admiral de Witt is buried in the cathedral of this city. The inhabitants are extremely fond of water-parties, and have many pleasure-boats upon the Maese, which are handsomely fitted up. Schiedam on the Schie, with 10,000 inhabitants, contains no less than 200 distilleries which make gin from rye and barley, by a process nearly similar to that of making whiskey from the latter, and some other manufactories.—Delft, a town on the Schie, with 12,900 inhabitants, contains the mausoleum of Prince William of Orange, who was assassinated here in 1584, and that of Hugo Grotius, who was born here, both in the new church, which has a steeple 300 feet high. In the old church is the monument of admiral Tromp.—Dortrecht, with 17,387 inhabitants, maintains an extensive commerce in wood, Rhine wine, flax, and dried fish. It was the birth-place of De Witt.—Briel is a fortified town near the mouth of the Maese, with 3,300 inhabitants. By the taking of this town by the Count of Lumay, the first foundation of Dutch freedom was laid. Helvoetsluys is a fortified town with a harbour, docks and magazines. Its population is estimated at 1,208 souls. At this port travellers usually embark for England. the distance between the island of Schoen on the Dutch coast, and Lowestoff on the English coast being only about 93 miles. The harbour here commands a draught of 21 feet at low water, near the entrance; but the interior has only 11 feet. The perpendicular rise of the tide on these shores is 8 or 9 feet.

Amsterdam.] The principal city in North Holland is Amsterdam,

one of the most considerable cities in Europe. It is built in the form of a crescent entirely on piles, and fortified towards the land by a broad ditch and bastions. The Amstel, a pretty river, runs through the town, which is also intersected by a great number of canals, which form 90 islands, connected by 280 stone and wooden bridges. The new bridge over the Amstel is a magnificent structure, consisting of 36 arches, and 606 feet in length. The stagnant water of the canals is unhealthy, and would be still more so if it was not kept clean, and put in motion by wind-mills. The greatest cleanliness is to be remarked in the houses and on the streets. The town-house is considered the most splendid building in Holland. It was begun in 1648, and completed in little more than 8 years, at the enormous expense of £2,000,000. It is chiefly occupied by the courts of justice and public offices. The harbour is not naturally good, but has been improved by every exertion of art, and can contain 1000 vessels. A bar which crosses its mouth, prevents the entrance of large vessels. Before the war this city engrossed three-fourths of the foreign trade of the United Provinces. It may now be considered as upon the decline. About the year 1660, it was supposed to contain 54,000 houses, whereas Paris at that period only contained 46,000. Its population at that period, was estimated at 250,000 inhabitants. In 1802 it contained 26,400 houses, with 193,083 inhabitants. Balbi states the population at 201,000 in 1826. The opening of the Scheldt, the ruin of the Dutch commerce in the war with Great Britain, and Buonaparte's rigorous execution of what he technically denominated *the Continental system*, all conspired to diminish the commerce and population of this renowned city. The *Almanach royal* of 1817, however, stated that 3,377 ships left the port that year. The Exchange is a remarkably fine building, erected between the years 1608 and 1613. Among other public buildings worthy of notice are the India-house, the State-bank, the admiralty, the arsenal, the orphan-house, and the rasp-house. The voyage from Amsterdam to Utrecht occupies 8 hours; and is the most pleasing in point of scenery that can be undertaken in Holland.

Haerlem.] This city, seated upon the lake of the same name, is of considerable size, containing 7,963 houses, and 15 churches, 9 of which are Catholic. It has several fine buildings, among which is a church esteemed the largest in Holland. This church has an organ of uncommon magnitude. It contains 8000 pipes, of which the largest is in length 38 feet, and in diameter 16 inches. The organ has 68 stops, but the tone is said not to be very sweet. The inhabitants show the house of Lorence Koster, who, according to them, invented the art of printing. This city was celebrated for its linen-bleachfields, and extensive silk-manufactures, which employed a great part of the population; but in 1813, such a stagnation of employment took place in the bleach-fields, in consequence of receiving no linen from Brabant for the purpose of bleaching and preparing it for sale, that they were completely abandoned. Whole streets were levelled with the ground, and more than 500 houses destroyed. Such were the effects of Buonaparte's Continental system upon this once flourishing city! Stein stated the population in 1826 at 21,200. The tulipo-mania reached its height in this city in the years 1636 and 1637, when 10,000 florins were known to have been paid for a single root of that flower!—Sardam or Zaandam, on the river Zaan, is a considerable town of wooden houses, almost all which are painted green! It possesses a considerable commerce, and the ship-building for which this place was once famous begins to revive again. Peter the Great of

Russia learned ship-building here under the name of Peter Michailof. The house in which he lived is still shown. Almost every house is surrounded by water, and forms, as it were, with its garden, a small island. Broek, a village with 752 inhabitants, is celebrated for its excessive cleanliness. The houses are built in very odd taste, and have each two doors, one of which is only opened on the occasion of a marriage, and the other at a funeral. Before each house is a small garden. The pavement consists of coloured varnished bricks laid out in mosaic.—Alkmaar is a fortified town, well-built, and intersected with canals.—Helder on the extreme point of North Holland, is mostly inhabited by pilots. Here is the redoubt where the British troops landed in 1797.—The Texel is an island in the German ocean, separated from the mainland by the Marsdiep. It supports a population of about 5000, and a number of sheep which have a particular fine wool. The northern part of this province is called 'Eggland,' from the enormous quantities of eggs which the sea-gulls lay here on the shore.

CHAP. VII.—THE PROVINCE OF FRIESLAND.

Physical Features and Productions.] Friesland is an entirely flat country, about 30 miles in length, and nearly the same in breadth. Its plains are in many parts lower than the sea, and must be protected by dykes. The level country near the coast affords excellent pasture, and the interior districts are cultivated for corn. The Lauwers, which forms the boundary between Friesland and Gröningen, and flows into the Lauwerzee, a gulf of the North sea, is the only river of importance; but there are numerous lakes and canals. The climate is damp, though not very unhealthy. Agriculture is well-conducted, and corn is raised for exportation. The cattle are excellent, and furnish a great quantity of butter and cheese. The breed of horses is also highly esteemed. The productions of industry are woollen-stuffs, linens, and paper.

Inhabitants.] The inhabitants are mostly Calvinists, but there are also a considerable number of Mennonites, Catholics, Lutherans, Remonstrants, and Collegiants. They are Frisians by descent, and have preserved the manners, customs, dress, and even the language of their ancestors, which more nearly resembles the English than the Dutch. They are distinguished for heroism, good faith, and love of freedom, and are remarkably skilful in many bodily exercises, particularly that of skaiting. The country people here are in general very wealthy.

Principal Towns.] The principal towns are Leeuwarden, the capital of the province, with 1900 houses, and 17,000 inhabitants; Sneek, the principal butter-market of Friesland, with 5,500 inhabitants; Staveren, on the Zuydersee, with 1,083 inhabitants, in ancient times the residence of the kings of Friesland; Dragten, with a population of 3000, chiefly Mennonites; and Franeker, with 4000 inhabitants. Its formerly celebrated university is now converted into an athenæum.

CHAP. VIII.—THE PROVINCE OF GRONINGEN.

Physical Features and Productions.] This province is about 47 miles in length, and 30 at its greatest breadth. Its surface is quite flat, and s-

cured by dykes against the encroachments of the sea. In some places the soil is very rich, in others moorish and marshy; and in some districts peats and sand. The principal rivers are the Ems, the Fivel, the Aar, and the Hunse. There are many lakes, and a great number of canals. The air is thick and damp, and particularly unhealthy to foreigners. The productions are the ordinary domestic animals, fowls, fish, beer, corn, flax, potatoes, vegetables, and fruit. The country is more favourable to pasturage than agriculture; but potatoes are extensively produced. There are few manufactures, and the principal exports are cattle and dairy-produce.

Principal Towns.] The chief town is Gröningen, a fortified town, at the confluence of the Hunse and Aar, with 27,800 inhabitants. The University of Gröningen, with 19 professors, was founded in 1614, and is liberally endowed out of the revenues of the old monasteries. The elder and younger Altingius, and the learned Des Marets, were professors in this university. There is also a famous grammar school, furnished with 7 masters, for the learned languages; and a botanic garden. This town possesses several learned institutions and scientific societies, amongst which the society *pro excolendo jure patriæ* deserves particular notice. The commerce is not important.—At Winschotten, on the Rensel, the prince of Orange defeated the Spaniards in 1568. Leek, a small town in this province, gives its name to the Leekster lake.

CHAP. IX.—THE PROVINCE OF DRENTHE.

THIS province lies a little higher than Friesland and Gröningen, but is likewise completely level, having only a few sand-hills, and here and there a little timber. The soil is partly a fertile clay, partly moor and heath. There are many swamps and peat moors. The Hunse, the Musselaa, and several other rivers flow through this province. The climate is damp, but not unhealthy. The productions are the same as those of Gröningen. Corn is produced in considerable quantity; but there are few manufactures.

Inhabitants, &c.] The inhabitants are chiefly Calvinists. They are poor, and lead a very simple life; but are strong and healthy. Most of them live in wretched hovels covered with straw, rushes, or heath.—Assen, the chief town, is well-built, and has 1,173 inhabitants. Coevorden is a fortified place, with 2,000 inhabitants.—The town of Hoogeven, in this province, contains 4,200 inhabitants; and that of Meppel 4,640.

CHAP. X.—THE PROVINCE OF OVERYSSEL.

THE surface of this province is flat and low, with some insignificant hills, here called mountains. The soil is for the most part swampy, and there are also some sandy heaths. The principal rivers are the Yssel, the Black-Water, and the Vecht. The climate is damp and unhealthy, on account of the many swamps. The productions are the same as those of Drenthe; but the rearing of cattle is more attended to than agriculture. There are some linen-manufactures and paper-mills. The chief town is Zwolle, a fortified place, with 12,800 inhabitants, which conducts some commerce. It lies near the Yssel and the Vecht. Deventer, a town of 9,621 inhabitants, has some linen manufactures and extensive breweries; it is

also famous for its excellent ginger-bread. Thomas á Kempis lectured and died in this town, which was also the birth-place of the learned philologist Gronovius.

CHAP. XI.—THE PROVINCE OF GUELDERLAND.

Physical Features and Productions.] The surface of this province is in general level, but towards the middle there are some sand-hills called the Veluvian mountains, which are the highest points in the N. provinces. The soil is in some places rich and fertile; but in others presents only sandy heath and swamps. The principal rivers are the Rhine, with its three arms, the Yssel, the Leck, and the Waal; the Linge, and the Maese. The air is not so thick and damp as in the more northern provinces. The productions are nearly the same as those of Drenthe, with the addition of a good deal of fruit, as cherries, prunes, and walnuts. The principal manufactures consist in linen, leather, and paper.

Population.] From a very exact census taken of this province in 1820 we learn, that the population was then 270,659 souls; in 1796 it was 217,828, being an increase of 52,000 souls in 25 years. From the same statement we learn, that, from 1813 to 1820, both years included, the excess of births was 18,403. During the same period there were 15,203 marriages, and only 8 divorces. The Guelderlanders are healthier and better-looking than those of the more northern provinces.

Chief Towns.] Arnheim, the chief town of this province, with 9,500 inhabitants, situated on the Rhine, has an animated commerce.—Zütphen, on the Yssel, with 7,513 inhabitants, is surrounded by fortifications.—Nimeguen, on the Waal, a fortified town, with 14,000 inhabitants, commands a fine country, and conducts some manufactures and commerce. Loevestein, is a fort on the right banks of the Maese. Hugo Grotius was confined as a prisoner here, but escaped hidden in a box which his wife had sent to him, containing books.

CHAP. XII.—THE PROVINCE OF UTRECHT.

Physical Features.] The surface of this province is level in the N. and W parts; in the E. it rises into a ridge of small hills, called the mountains of Amersfoort. The soil is like that of the province of Holland; but in the more elevated parts is sandy. The principal rivers are the arms of the Rhine, and the Ems. The climate is less damp than that of Holland and more healthy. The productions are nearly the same as those of the former provinces. Tobacco is produced in considerable quantity; and there are manufactures of wool, cotton, silk, and linen.

Principal Towns.] The principal town is Utrecht, which is surrounded by walls and ramparts, and contains 36,000 inhabitants. The cathedral, with a steeple 464 feet high, is remarkable, and so is the royal palace, called the house of Loo, in which was signed the celebrated Union of Utrecht in 1579, and in 1713 the peace between France, Great Britain, and Holland. Here is a university founded in 1634, with a library, a botanic garden, and an observatory. The university of Utrecht was originally a public school, erected in 1439. The celebrated literary female character, Maria Ann Schurman, opened the new university with

a Latin oration; and Gisbert Voet, the great adversary of the Cartesians and Cocceians, was the first rector; he was 42 years professor of theology, and died at the advanced age of 88. This university has 19 professors; but not the full privileges of other universities, being wholly subject to the magistrates of the city. The library of printed books is larger than that of Leyden, but has fewer manuscripts. It has produced several names eminent in theological and literary science as Leusden, Leidekker, Reland, Mill, Voget, and others. Amersfoort, with 8,309 inhabitants, is a place of considerable commerce and numerous manufactures. There are about 200 plantations of tobacco around the town.

CHAP. XIII.—THE PROVINCE OF ZEELAND.

Physical Features and Productions.] This province consists partly of a group of islands formed by the arms of the Scheldt, and partly of the district of Flanders, which was ceded by Spain to the United Netherlands in the peace of Munster. The surface is flat, and the coasts not being sufficiently protected by downs, are guarded by dykes of 14 and 16 feet in height. The soil is rich and fertile; in the islands it consists of a kind of clay which requires very little manure. There are a great number of polders in this province. The main rivers are the Krammer, the Grevelinge, and the two principal arms of the Scheldt, between which the islands are situated. The climate is damp and variable, and very unhealthy to foreigners, though the natives appear to suffer little from it. The productions are the common domestic animals, large quantities of ducks, rabbits, wild fowls, fish, shell-fish, corn, vegetables, particularly beans and peas, fruit, flax, and madder. It is somewhat remarkable that the latter plant is successfully cultivated in the opposite climates of Zeeland and Asiatic Turkey. Agriculture and the rearing of cattle furnish the principal employment; the manufactures are not of great importance.

Inhabitants and Towns.] The majority of the population are Calvinists; there are also some Catholics, Lutherans, Mennonites, and Jews. The Zeelanders are reckoned the most wealthy class in the kingdom; they have a pale complexion, but are strong-limbed, and much attached to their customs and dress. The principal town is Middleburg, on the island of Walcheren, the most westerly and fertile of the islands of Zeeland. It is the capital of the province, and has 13,200 inhabitants. The town-house is a large Gothic building, with a number of statues of the old counts of Zeeland. Vlissingen is a fortified town on the W. side of the island of Walcheren, with a very good harbour which can contain 80 men-of-war, and extensive dock-yards. The whole surrounding country can easily be laid under water, which renders this position very strong. Vlissingen is the birth-place of admiral de Ruyter.—The dyke at West Kapelle is 390 feet broad, and 8,900 feet long. From this as a base line 20 strong dykes, founded upon pile-work, stretch out into the sea to break the power of the water.—Goes, on the island of Zuyd-Beveland, or South Beveland, which is the largest of the Zeeland islands, is a neat town, with a harbour for small vessels, and has 4,415 inhabitants, who are supported by their manufactures and commerce.—Zierickzee, on the island of Schouwen, is an ancient trading town with 6,260 inhabitants. This island is famous for the cultivation of madder. A great many oysters are taken here, and considerable quantities are sent over from Colchester in England, to be fed

here in ditches made for the purpose of fattening them.—Tholen, on the island of the same name, has 1,900 inhabitants, who are chiefly occupied with flax-spinning, which is carried to so great perfection here that a pound of yarn has been sold in its manufactured state for 250 to 300 florins.—Sas Van Ghent is a fortified town on a canal running from Ghent

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CHAP. XIV.—THE PROVINCE OF NORTH BRABANT.

The surface of North Brabant is level. The soil is in many places very fertile; but there are extensive heaths and moors. On the E. side of this province is the Peel,—an immense marsh of 10 leagues in length and from 1 to 3 in breadth. The principal rivers are the Maas, the Easternscheldt and the Diest. The climate is damp, but temperate, and in most parts not unhealthy. The want of wood is supplied by extensive peat-moors. The industry of this province is particularly flourishing, especially in the large towns, which furnish fine linen and broad cloth.

Chief Towns.] The principal towns are Herzogenbusch, or Bois-le-duc, the capital of the province, situated in a low country, intersected by rivers and canals, by which the whole surrounding country may be placed under water. This town has strong fortifications, and conducts an extensive commerce. The population is said to be 13,100.—Eindhoven, a town of 2,400 inhabitants, holds ten fairs each year.—Aerschott, a town of 5,300 inhabitants, chiefly Catholics, possesses some extensive hat-manufactories.

City of Breda.] Breda, at the juncture of the Aa and Werck, was formerly the capital of Dutch Brabant, and of an ancient barony containing 17 considerable villages, and a forest about 5 English miles in length, and 2 in breadth, which has belonged to the family of Orange since the year 1404. The king of the Netherlands has a magnificent palace on this patrimonial domain, built in 1680 by king William. The city is triangular, and contains 1,500 houses, 7 churches, and 9,000 inhabitants. At every angle is a gate; and elm-trees are planted along the ramparts. It has a magnificent cathedral with a spire 362 feet in height, and a large town-house. It is one of the strongest fortified towns in the Netherlands, having 15 bastions, 4 ravelins, and 5 hornworks; and is surrounded on all sides by water and morasses, which renders approach to a besieging army exceedingly difficult. In the annals of the United Netherlands, this place is celebrated for its siege of 10 months, in 1625, by an army of 30,000 men, under the Spanish general Spinola, who surrounded it with such incredible works, that it was impossible for prince Maurice to relieve it; and its gallant defender, the brave Justin of Nassau, a natural son of William prince of Orange, was obliged to surrender the place, from absolute famine. It was re-taken in 1637, after a siege of 4 months, by the prince of Orange. In 1793, it was shamefully surrendered to the French, after a siege of only 3 days. At that time it was much more strongly fortified than when besieged by Spinola; 200 pieces of artillery were mounted on the ramparts,—2,300 infantry, with a regiment of cavalry, composed the garrison,—and nothing but another Justin of Nassau was wanted to make the place impregnable. The French army consisted of only 5,000 men. It was again ignominiously abandoned to its fate in September 1794, by the retreat of the allies, and surrendered without resistance to the French general Pichegru. It was abandoned by the French in December 1813, on the approach of the Russian advanced guard under Benkendorf. It lies

46 miles S. of Amsterdam; 18 miles S.W. of Bois-le-duc; and 22 miles S.E. of Rotterdam.

Town of Bergen-op-Zoom.] Bergen-op-Zoom is a maritime town of 1,150 houses, and 5,600 inhabitants, situated on the river Zoom, near its confluence with the Scheldt. It derives its name from its high situation on the Zoom, in the midst of a morass, a mile and a half from the eastern branch of the Scheldt, with which it has a communication by a navigable canal. The houses are well-built; the market-places and squares handsome and spacious. This place was first surrounded with a wall in 1287, and is so strongly fortified, both by nature and art, as to be deemed almost impregnable; the fortifications are reckoned the master-piece of the celebrated Coehorn, the rival and contemporary of the famous Vauban. Towards Antwerp is a grand half-moon, furnished with four redoubts, and well-mounted with cannon. Between the town and the sea are 11 forts, well-supplied with redoubts and pallisadoes. In the direction of Steinbergen also, the outworks are very strong. It was unsuccessfully besieged by the famous duke of Parma, in 1586; and afterwards, in 1622, it defied the utmost attempts of Spinola, who was forced to abandon the enterprise, after a siege of ten weeks, with the loss of 12,000 men. In 1747, however, it was taken by count Lowendahl, at the head of 36,000 men. During the last revolutionary war this place made no defence whatever. In 1814, it was again rendered famous by an unsuccessful attempt of the British troops under Lord Lynedoch, then Sir Thomas Graham, to take the place by surprise, on the night of the 8th of March. The troops destined for the attack numbered 3,950, and were divided into four columns, two of which, after most desperate efforts and gallant conduct, succeeded in establishing themselves upon the ramparts of the place; but the other two columns were completely unsuccessful, and driven back with prodigious loss. Above two-thirds of the whole assailing force were killed, wounded, or taken in this attempt. A tablet of marble, recording the names of the brave men who fell in this ill-fated enterprise, has been erected in the church, by the British officers. The place was, however, given up at the treaty of peace, in May 1814. Bergen-op-Zoom is 15 miles N. of Antwerp, and 22 S.W. of Breda.

CHAP. XV.—THE SOUTHERN PROVINCES.

THE southern provinces consist of the ancient Austrian Netherlands, recently belonging to France,—some parts of Jülich and Cleve-berg,—the bishoprick of Liege,—a small part of the department of the Ardennes, ceded in the peace of 1815,—and some other districts. The number of provinces is 9, which are divided into 30 districts and 217 cantons.

PROVINCE OF SOUTH BRABANT.—*Physical Features.*] South Brabant is a complete level, diversified only in the E. and S. by a few small hills, the steep banks of the rivers, and some forests. The soil is on the whole very fertile, a great part being rich mould. Sand, with decayed shells, is predominant in many places. The principal rivers are the Dyle, the Demer, and the Senne. The two large canals of Louvain and Brussels facilitate the communication. The climate is less damp than that of North Brabant, and is considered healthy.[10] The productions are the com-

[10] In a late volume of the proceedings of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Brussels, M. Kickz has communicated the result of above 20 years' observation on the atmospheric

mon domestic animals, fowls, game, fish, beer, corn of all kinds, vegetables, potatoes, flax, oil-plants, hops, honey, fruit, and wood. The whole country is in excellent cultivation, and seems a garden. The rich pastures favour the rearing of cattle which are particularly good here. There are some considerable forests, of which that of Soignies on the S. of Brussels, is the largest. The lace-manufactures are highly celebrated; there are also some good cotton and linen manufactures.

Inhabitants.] The population is mostly Catholic. In the N. districts they speak Flemish, and in the S. Walloon; but French is also very generally spoken, particularly in the towns.

City of Brussels.] Brussels, the second city in the kingdom, with a population of above 80,000, chiefly Catholics, was formerly the capital of the Austrian Netherlands. It is situated on both sides of the little river Senne, Long. 4° 28′ E. Lat. 50° 51′. N. and 2 miles to the N. of the forest of Soignies. No city in Europe, except Naples and Genoa, makes a finer appearance at a distance; but like them it is all up and down hill. It lies in a rich and fertile country abounding in all the necessaries and comforts of life.[11] It was formerly surrounded by a double wall and ditch, but these were destroyed by Joseph II. They are now planted with trees and form most delightful walks for the use of the inhabitants. It has extensive suburbs, and villages, joined to the city by a continuity of streets. The lower part of the town is irregular and somewhat unhealthy; but the more modern streets, which are in the vicinity of the Park, are straight and wide. The private houses in this quarter are lofty and elegant, while the public structures display both taste and magnificence. Brussels contains 9,500 houses, and 7 parish churches within the walls, and is divided into eight sections. Of the eight public squares the most remarkable are the great market-place, a regular parallelogram of considerable extent surrounded with buildings which have upon the whole an elegant appearance; and St Michael's, which deserves the particular attention of every traveller; being an extensive oblong, formed of elegant buildings of uniform architecture, ornamented with pillars of the Doric order. The city has 7 gates and is 7 miles in circumference, and may be said to unite the magnificence of Paris with the cleanliness of a Dutch city. The imperial palace, or palace of Laacken, a large and magnificent structure, was begun in the year 1300, by John Duke of Brabant,—enlarged in 1452, by Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy,—and finished by his successors. At the extremity, near the gate of Louvain, stands a pleasure-house built by Charles

constitution of the province of South Brabant. It appears that on the average, winds from S. to W. have prevailed for 166 days in the year; winds from W. to N. for 84 days; winds from N. to E. for 92 days; and winds from E. to S. for only 23 days. On the average there have been in the 365 days,—245 of common wind, 81 of strong wind, 29 of violent wind, and 10 of hurricane. It has rained on the average 149 days in the 365; viz. 69 days of gentle rain, 48 of showers, 10 of heavy showers, and 22 of tempestuous rain.

[11] The author of the *Brussels Companion* gives the following comparative table of the expense of a good dinner for four persons, in London and Brussels:—In London, three pounds of beef-steaks 3s. 6d.; potatoes, 2d.; pot of porter, pepper and salt, 6d.; bread, 2d.; cheese and butter 4d.; coals for cooking, 4d.; total, 5s. Now, for the same number of persons, a dinner admirably cooked may be procured from a Restaurateur at Brussels, consisting of the following dishes:—A roast of veal, (or beef, or mutton); a broiled fowl, with mushroom sauce; a beef-steak, or mutton pie; an apple-pudding, or fruit tart; a dish of stewed red cabbage, or mashed spinage, and plain potatoes; the above will cost 3 francs 5½ sous, or 38½ sous. To which you may add, cheese, 2 sous; butter, 2 sous; four rolls, 2 sous; 4 French pears, 2 sous; one pound of grapes, 3 sous; a bottle of Bourdeux, 14 sous; porterage of dinner, 2 sous; mustard, salt, pepper, and vinegar, 2 liards, or ½ sous; total 66 sous, or 6 francs, or 5s. sterling.

V. where he for some time resided after his abdication. In the market-place is a grand structure, called the Hotel de Ville, begun in 1380, and finished in 1423. Its turret is an admirable piece of Gothic architecture, 364 feet in height, and surmounted with the figure of St Michael, in copper gilt, 17 feet high, which turns with the wind. Here are many palaces belonging to the nobility, as those of the Prince de Ligne, the Duke of Aremberg, Egmont Alva, Orange, and Bourneville. All these palaces, and the imperial palace of Laacken, are adorned with a vast variety of paintings, executed by the best Flemish and Dutch masters, and disposed in large galleries built for the purpose. There are several literary and scientific societies in this city, and a fine library of 80,000 volumes. The Jesuits had formerly a fine college and church here. The Senne in its progress through the city branches into several streams, forming many islands, which add to the beauty of the city. This city is celebrated for its fine lace, camblets, and tapestry. Woollen and cotton stuffs, silk-stockings, gold and silver lace, vitriol, potash, and earthenware are also manufactured here. Brussels suffered much by the plague, in 1489, which swept off 33,000 persons. In 1695, it was bombarded by the French under Marshal Villeroy, when the stadthouse, 14 churches, and above 4000 houses were destroyed. It was taken in 1746, by Marshal Saxe; in 1792, by Dumourier; retaken in March 1793; and again taken by the French in 1794, who levied contributions to the amount of half-a-million sterling upon the city. It remained in the hands of the French till the year 1814, when it was retaken by the Prussians under general Bulow. It was the head-quarters of the British troops on the eve of the memorable battle of Waterloo. Brussels is 23 miles S. of Antwerp, and 26 miles S.E. of Ghent.—Louvain or Loewen, was an important manufacturing town in the 14th century, when from 60,000 to 80,000 people were occupied in its cloth-manufactures. It has now only 25,400 inhabitants. The university of Louvain was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant. By a grant of Pope Sextus IV. it had the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands. It contained 43 Foundations; 4 of which were called pedagoges or schools, as they were chiefly designed for the instruction of boys. In 1653, there were 1600 students at this university, but in 1818, only 262. A new college was founded here in 1818.—Tirlemont, with 7,900 inhabitants, has some manufactures.—Nivelles, with 7000 inhabitants, has manufactures of lace and linen.—Waterloo village, near the forest of Soignies, celebrated by the ever-memorable battle of the 18th of June, 1815, contains 1,900 inhabitants.

CHAP. XVI.—THE PROVINCE OF ANTWERP.

The surface of this province is a perfect level. The soil is in general a light sand, covered with fertile vegetable earth. The level is so low that water may always be found at a depth of 8 to 10 inches. The N. and E. part of the province are covered with an extensive moor, presenting many lakes and morasses, and in other parts a white sand scarcely producing grass. The best agricultural land is in the neighbourhood of Mechlins. The principal river is the Scheldt, which, near Antwerp, is 2,160 feet broad, and 30 feet deep. The canal of Brussels and that of Louvain run through this province. The neighbourhood of the sea prevents the climate from being so cold as might be expected from its northern situation, but it is very

damp and misty, and the temperature is very variable. Although the soil is not very fertile, the careful cultivation produces more corn than is requisite for the consumption of the province. There is not much wood. The cattle are very fine, and the general commerce is very animated.

City of Antwerp.] This celebrated city was formerly the pride of the Netherlands, and contained, in the zenith of its commercial splendour, more than 200,000 inhabitants. The conduct of the Dutch towards this unfortunate city affords one of the most striking instances of commercial jealousy recorded in the page of history. Though Antwerp had taken part in the cause of liberty equally with themselves, and had consequently been subjected to the loss of its commerce and the depopulation of its inhabitants, yet even when besieged for more than a year by the duke of Parma, in 1584–5, the Dutch merchants of Amsterdam used every underhand method to prevent assistance being given to their rival brethren. At the peace of Munster in which Spain acknowledged the Dutch independence, Antwerp was sacrificed as a peace-offering; for it was agreed by an article of that treaty, that no large vessel should sail up to Antwerp, without having unloaded her cargo in a Dutch port, whence the merchandise might be conveyed to Antwerp in barges or small craft. The emperor Joseph attempted to open the navigation of the Scheldt, but was prevented by the resolute opposition of the Dutch, supported by the king of Prussia. But when the French obtained possession of Antwerp, in August, 1794, they immediately declared it a free port, opened up the navigation of the river, and dismantled all those forts which the Dutch had constructed at vast expense to prevent vessels from going up to Antwerp. The city is environed with a large wall, planted with rows of trees on each side with walks between, broad enough for two coaches to go abreast; and is also defended by a large, strong, and regular citadel, of a pentagonal form, erected by the duke of Alva, in 1568. The western banks of the Scheldt can also be put under water. No expense was spared by Buonaparte to deepen the river, enlarge the harbour, and to strengthen the fortifications. Nevertheless, during the bombardment of the city, by Lord Lynedoch in 1814, the British thunders reached the men-of-war even in their well-defended dock-yards, and several of them, whose masts are still visible above water, were then sunk. The cathedral of Antwerp is one of the finest pieces of Gothic architecture in Europe. It has 66 chapels, and the paintings above the altars are the workmanship of Rubens, who is buried here in the church of St Jacob. The steeple belonging to the cathedral is 441 feet high; the ascent is by 620 steps to within 30 feet of the top, whence there is an extensive prospect of the adjacent country, and even of the isles of Zeeland. This steeple is of such admirable workmanship, that Charles V. used to say, that it deserved to be put in a case, and only shown on holidays. In the days of Guicciardini, Antwerp or Anvert, had 13 gates, 13,500 houses, 74 bridges over the 8 canals in the town, 200 streets, and 22 magnificent squares; but its population has since wofully declined, from causes we have already mentioned. The city, however, now numbers 11 canals, 162 streets, 10,088 houses, and 65,000 inhabitants. Perhaps it may not be a waste of time to give those who are imperfectly acquainted with the rate of hotels in the Netherlands a statement of the charges to which the traveller is exposed at Antwerp. An excellent supper for four, including preserves, fruits of the choicest kinds, &c. will generally cost about 2s. 7½d. each. If a gentleman cannot sup without a flask of Champagne, he

must not expect it at a cost less than from 6s. to 7s. Dinner at the table d'hotel may be had for 1s. 9d. each. To have it in your own private room it will cost nearly 3s.; breakfast, tea or coffee, &c., in your room, less than 1s. A flask of beer, which is here much better than elsewhere in the Netherlands, may be procured at the hotel for about 6d. This flask is the same as that which in England contains *Seltzer* and other imported mineral waters. Antwerp lies 25 miles N. of Brussels, and 75 miles S. of Amsterdam, in Lat. 51° 16′. It was the birth-place of the celebrated painters Franz Floris, Matthieu Brill, Daniel Seghers, Franz Sneders the two Teniers, Antony Van-Dyke, and Lukas Van-Uden.—Malines or Mechlen, is a well built town, with 19,975 inhabitants. The spire of the cathedral is 348 feet in height. There is a high school and an academy of painting here. The lace made here is thought next to that of Brussels, and is known by the name of *dentelles de Malines*.—Turnhout is a town of 10,827 inhabitants, and possesses several manufactures, particularly of bed-tweeling. About 1000 persons in and about this town make lace.

CHAP. XVII.—THE PROVINCE OF EAST FLANDERS.

Physical Features and Productions.] This province is a plain interrupted by some small hills, declining towards the W. and N. The soil is very fertile and well cultivated; even the hills have a good soil and excellent pastures. The principal rivers are the Scheldt, the Lys, the Dender, the Durme. The principal canals run from Ghent to Bruges, from Ghent to Sas van Ghent, and from Ghent to Damme. The agriculture of the province is admirable, and the richest harvests in the kingdom are raised here; so that corn is exported. The cultivation of flax has also been carried to the highest perfection, and the cattle are excellent. The climate is damp but temperate, and not unhealthy. This province is one of the most industrious in the whole kingdom, and numerous manufactures of every description are conducted here. Spinning and weaving is the common occupation of all the country-people after the field-work is done. The inhabitants are Roman Catholics, and speak Flemish. French is generally spoken in the towns and also understood in a great part of the country.

Town of Ghent.] The chief town is Ghent or Gand, with 70,000 inhabitants. Ghent was formerly the capital of Flanders, and is still a considerable city, though fallen from its former splendour. It is situated at the confluence of four rivers, namely, the Scheldt, the Lys, the Lieve, and the More, which, with a great number of canals, intersect it in every direction, and divide the town into 26 small islands, which are united together by upwards of 300 bridges. It is 7 miles in compass within the walls, and contains 6 parish churches, 24 hospitals, and 10,000 houses. But it is by no means peopled in proportion to its extent, as there is a prodigious quantity of waste ground, and corn-fields, within the precincts of the city. It has been noted for the turbulent and warlike character of its inhabitants, which finally proved the ruin of the place. The emperor Charles V. was born here on the 24th February, 1500, in an old castle called the Prinzenhof. Ghent was the birth-place of the philosopher H. Gothals and the celebrated critic Heinsius. The famous duke of Lancaster, patron of the English reformer, Wickliff, was also born here, and on this account was denominated John of Ghent, duke of Lancaster. On the 8th of November, 1576, the famous pacification, consisting of 25

articles, was concluded in this place. A treaty was made here, between Great Britain and the United States of America, on the 24th December, 1814. In 1817 a Royal College was erected here, with 9 professors. This city has been several times taken and retaken by the French and Allies. A severe contribution of 7,000,000 of florins, or upwards of £640,000 sterling, was imposed upon the inhabitants, by the French, in 1794. It enjoys a considerable trade in grain, linens, and silks, which is much assisted by the two navigable canals, to Sas van Ghent, and Bruges. The canal leading to the mouth of the Scheldt has been so much enlarged that East India vessels now sail up to the town itself. A number of steam-engines have lately been erected in this city to work power-looms, and its trade is greatly increasing. It is 30 miles S.W. of Antwerp, and 35 miles N. of Lisle. Lat. 51° 4′ N.

Towns.] Oudenaarde, on the Scheldt, with 5,084 inhabitants, conducts an animated commerce in linen.—Dendermonde, on the confluence of the Dender with the Scheldt, in a very fertile country, is surrounded by fortifications, and contains 5,796 inhabitants, who conduct a commerce in corn, flax, hemp, and lace.—Alost, on the Dender, with 12,151 inhabitant conducts commerce in corn and hops; the latter are very famous, and are exported in great quantities to England. Lokeren, a borough on the Durme, with 12,864 inhabitants, has some important manufactures and commerce.—St Nicholas borough, with 11,510 inhabitants, has numerous manufactures, and an animated commerce. This town is one of the richest and most flourishing in the whole kingdom. The country around is cultivated like a garden.

CHAP. XVIII.—THE PROVINCE OF WEST FLANDERS.

Physical Features and Productions.] The surface of this province is level; but some rising downs occur along the coast. In the interior of the province the soil is heavy and very fertile; in other places it is sandy, and exhibits several heaths and marshes which have been made fit for cultivation however by the aid of canals. The principal rivers are the Scheldt, the Lys, and the Yser. T. principal canals are those from Ghent to Bruges, from Bruges to Ostend, and from Ostend to Nieuport. The climate is changeable, and occasions, particularly in the N. and W. parts, frequent agues The country is like a garden, and the great variety of the productions of the soil breaks that uniformity which extensive corn-fields generally exhibit. The linen produced in the environs of Courtray is known over all Europe. Table-linen, lace, cotton, and woollen-cloth are also made to a great extent: and the commerce is very animated.

Population.] The inhabitants are zealous Roman Catholics; but an honest, frank, and industrious race. They have a turn for painting and music. French is almost generally spoken.

Principal Towns.] The chief town is Bruges, which is situated in a fertile plain. It is tolerably well-built, and intersected by canals, over which are 54 bridges. The population is about 35,000. The church of Notre Dame in this city is a very fine piece of architecture. Here is a college, an academy for painting, sculpture and architecture, several literary societies, a public library of 6,000 volumes, and a botanical garden. The industry is very animated; the fabrication of lace alone employs about 6000 people, and there are 200 schools in which children are taught

to make lace. There are many other manufactures. The commerce, though not what it was in the 13th and 14th centuries, is still very important, and is favoured by the numerous canals, and the harbour, established at the end of the canal of Ostend, which can contain more than 100 vessels. The people of the surrounding country bring their linen here for sale. Bruges is the birth-place of the painter John van Eyk. Ostend is a strongly fortified town on the German ocean, with 10,554 inhabitants. It is renowned in history for its memorable siege of three years and a half, which cost the lives of 80,000 Spaniards, and 50,000 Dutch. It surrendered to Spinola in 1604. The chief strength of the place lies in its situation; the sluices can lay the adjacent country under water for the space of two leagues; but it made no figure as a place of strength during the late revolutionary war. In 1796, about 1600 British, who were landed here to destroy the forts and shipping, were all captured by the French, the wind having shifted before they could re-embark. It is 10 miles W. of Bruges, and 22 miles NE. of Dunkirk.—Nieuport is a fortified town, which can also be laid under water. The Spaniards were defeated here by the Dutch in 1600.—Ypres, a strong fortress in a fertile plain, with 15,291 inhabitants.—Courtray on the Lys, with 13,982 inhabitants, is a place of animated industry and trade. The linen which takes its name from this town, is celebrated for its fineness, and is fabricated in the surrounding country, whence about 30,000 pieces are annually brought to the markets here. It is the birth-place of the celebrated landscape painter Roland Savoy. Rousselaer, a borough with 8,485 inhabitants, has a considerable commerce. Menin is a strongly fortified town on the Lys, which here forms the boundary betwixt the Netherlands and France.

CHAP. XIX.—THE PROVINCE OF HAINAULT.

Physical Features and Productions.] The surface of this province is in the N. and W. parts very flat; but in the S. and E. is considerably elevated and covered with wood. In the level part the soil is extremely fertile; in the elevated it is stony, but has nevertheless been put into good cultivation. The southern districts are mostly covered with wood. Among the numerous rivers, the Scheldt and Sambre are navigable. The others are the Haine, the Trouille, the Dender and the Senne. The climate is clear and healthy. Besides the productions common to the other provinces, Hainault produces wood, stone, lead, copper, iron, coal, marble, slate, mill-stones, and clay for earthen-ware. Three-tenths of the corn raised in this province is exported; the flax is excellent. The forests, which cover almost the 5th part of the surface, are a great source of wealth in this province. The coal-pits produce 44,000,000 cwts of coals per annum.

Population.] The inhabitants are of the Roman Catholic religion. They are Walloons, and speak Flemish, but the French language is also understood almost everywhere.

Chief Towns.] The chief town of the province is Mons, a strongly fortified town on the Trouille, with 19,830 inhabitants.—Jemappes, a village on the Haine, with 2,838 inhabitants, is celebrated by the victory which the French here obtained over the Austrians on the 6th of Nov. 1792. Tournay or Doornick, on the Scheldt, with 23,256 inhabitants, is a well built town, with numerous churches, and a very animated trade and industry. There is here an extensive manufacture of carpets, which occupies

4,900 persons, and produces carpets from the finest quality to the most common. The exportation of these carpets is very considerable. There are also about 150 manufactures of linen, cotton and woollen hosiery, and also of linen and cotton cloth. Charleroi on the Sambre, with 4,020 inhabitants, has manufactures of nails and other iron-ware. Those huge blocks of hewn stone, of a beautiful gray colour, and close grain, which were employed by Buonaparte in facing the large and deep basins which he constructed at Antwerp, and which generally weighed from 2 to 4 tons each, were all brought by water from the quarries of Charleroi, a distance of 60 British miles from Antwerp. Coal also abounds in this neighbourhood.—Fleurus, a village with 2,158 inhabitants, is celebrated as having been the scene of battles in 1622, 1690, and 1794.

CHAP. XX.—THE PROVINCE OF NAMUR.

Physical Features and Productions.] The surface of this province is mountainous and intersected by many valleys. There are few plains; but a number of the hills do not rise above 308 feet. The forest of the Ardennes covers the south part of the province. In the north the soil is tolerably fertile; in the south it is sterile and rocky. The principal rivers are the Sambre and Meuse. The air is pure and healthy; but rain is frequent. Agriculture is carried on carefully, the productions being nearly the same as those of Hainault, but spelt is the corn mostly produced. Cattle are chiefly reared in the district of Namur. Fruit succeeds very well here, and formerly there were even a few vineyards in this province, but there are very few vines now. The forests are considerable.

Population.] The inhabitants of this province are chiefly Roman Catholics; they are Walloons by descent, and speak the Walloon language, and in some districts French, which is in general understood.

Towns.] Namur on the confluence of the Meuse and Sambre is a well-built town: the stones used are of a blue colour with red and black veins. The principal public edifice is the cathedral. It is defended by a strong citadel erected on the summit of a precipitous rock, and carries on an animated trade in hardware articles, ropes, leather, tobacco and fire-arms. It had formerly a population of 30,000, which is now diminished to 16,000. Gembloux, with 1660 inhabitants, was formerly a celebrated Abbey of Benedictine monks. There is a considerable manufacture of cutlery here. Don John of Austria obtained a victory here over the Dutch in 1578.—Ligny village, on the little brook of the same name, was rendered famous by the battle betwixt the French and Prussians on the 15th of June, 1815.—Dinant, on the Meuse, with 3,631 inhabitants, has a considerable trade in copper and iron-ware.—Philippeville is a strong fortress in the Ardennes, with 1,115 inhabitants.

CHAP. XXI.—THE PROVINCE OF LIEGE.

Physical Features and Productions.] The surface of this province is undulated in the northern part, and mountainous in the south, where the Ardennes cover a considerable district. The soil is fertile in part; but on the east side of the Maese, towards Luxemburg, it is rocky, consisting partly of slate. The principal river is the Maese; but the Ourthe is

navigable here. There are also the Ayvaille, the Homme, and the Lesse. The climate is not unhealthy. Agriculture is well-conducted in the northern districts, and more corn than is required for home-consumption is here produced. Towards the south, the sterility of the soil is such that on the whole importation of corn is required.

Chief Towns.] The chief town is Liege, with 49,000 inhabitants. The rivers Lesse, Ourthe, and Amblere, empty themselves into the Maese, as it enters this city, which formerly belonged to the circle of Westphalia; Liege is divided into three parts: viz. the City, the Island, and the Outer Maese. It has 10 great suburbs and 2 smaller; 14 gates; 17 bridges, 154 streets; 2 very fine quays, planted with rows of trees; 7 collegiate, and 30 parish churches, besides 46 religious houses. The bishop was formerly one of the most considerable ecclesiastical princes in Germany, having a revenue of 300,000 ducats, or nearly £150,000 sterling annually; and was able to maintain an army of 8,000 men, without oppressing his subjects. The Maese has here a fine stone-bridge of 6 large arches, and vessels easily pass under them. Liege has been several times taken and re-taken, particularly in 1792–3–4. There are extensive manufactures for cannon, small arms, and cutlery in this city, which also conducts an animated commerce. A university was founded here in 1817.—Verviers has 9,962 inhabitants, who are almost entirely supported by the extensive cloth manufactures which are carried on here.—Spaa, well-known for its mineral springs, is situated in a deep valley surrounded by steep woody mountains, with wild romantic scenery. There are some manufactures of wooden ware, such as work-boxes, dressing-boxes, snuff-boxes, and trays, in this small town. St Hubert, a village in a woody part of the Ardennes, with 1,369 inhabitants, was formerly a monastery of Benedictines, to which numerous pilgrimages were performed.

CHAP. XXII.—THE PROVINCE OF LIMBURG.

Physical Features and Productions.] The surface of this province is level, intersected in the S.E. part by hills and eminences. The Maese is the only navigable river. The soil is very fertile in the valley of the Maese, and in the whole of the S.E. part of the province; but the other districts are heathy, and in some parts exhibit only a desert morass. There are several small collections of water, but no navigable canals. The climate is tolerably healthy; it is temperate and particularly mild along the Maese. Agriculture and the rearing of cattle are the principal branches of industry.

Population.] The majority of the population are Catholics. Walloon, Flemish, Dutch, and German are spoken.

Chief Towns.] Maestricht is the chief town. It is situated upon the Maese, and has very strong and extensive fortifications. A citadel lying on the Petersberg, towards the south quarter of the town, adds also to the defence. The Petersberg or Peter's hill is very remarkable on account of the vaults and labyrinthic passages which have been discovered in it while hewing stones out of the quarries. Here and there are small openings for the light and air, also reservoirs for water. In time of war these subterranean passages have often yielded shelter and security to the inhabitants of this district. Tongern, with 3,895 inhabitants, was in ancient times a considerable town, where the bishopric of Liege was first founded. In the neighbourhood is a mineral spring.—Roërmonde, on the confluence of the

Roër with the Maese, has a population of 4,280 inhabitants, and possesses some manufactures and commerce.—Venloo, on the Maese, with 5,018 inhabitants, conducts some commerce.

CHAP. XXIII.—THE PROVINCE OR GRAND DUCHY OF LUXEMBURG.

Physical Features and Productions.] This province, which belongs to the German confederacy, is a mountainous country, with extensive woods and heaths, but also several fertile valleys and hills. The principal mountains are the Ardennes. The largest river is the Moselle, which is navigable; besides this there are the Sure, the Wilz, the Alzette, the Our, and the Ourthe. The climate is pure and healthy, and notwithstanding the height of the country, temperate. The productions are the common domestic animals, game, wild boars, wolves, fish, beer, corn, vegetables, fruit, hemp, flax, hops, a little wine, wood, copper, iron, slate, lime, clay, and peat. Agriculture is a principal branch of industry, and so is the rearing of cattle. Very little wine is produced, and that only of an inferior quality. Fruit is raised in great quantity. The industry of this province is far inferior in comparison to that of the others, and the commerce is not very considerable.

Population.] The population are Roman Catholics. They are partly Germans, and partly Walloons, but are very much behind their brethren in civilization. Establishments for education are much wanted, and the popular schools are in a wretched state. The clergy, as a body, are also shamefully ignorant. The Germans, who form the majority of the population, are behind the Walloons in civilization. The latter are gallant soldiers, and seem formed for military service. They have always entertained a secret grudge to the Germans, and a partiality for the French, to whose language their own is kindred.

Chief Towns.] Luxemburg is the capital of the province. The fortifications of this place are considered among the strongest in Europe. The population is about 9,500.—Diekirch, with 2,627 inhabitants, has some tanneries and trade.—Neufchâteau, with 1,242 inhabitants, is situated in a high and rough country of the Ardennes, and conducts some commerce in cattle.

Duchy of Bouillon.] To this province belongs also the duchy of Bouillon, which was given in the 2d peace of Paris to the prince of Rohan Guemenée, to be held by him under the sovereignty of the king of the Netherlands. It lies in the Ardennes, and has about 150 British square miles of surface, and 16,000 inhabitants. It had in ancient times sovereign princes of its own, among whom Gottfried, or Godfrey, of Bouillon, generalissimo in the first crusade, and king of Jerusalem, is the most celebrated. It came afterwards to France.—The only town is Bouillon, on steep rocks of difficult access, with 2,575 inhabitants.

The colonies and settlements belonging to the Netherlands will be described when we come to the quarters of the world to which they belong.

Authorities.] Schiller's Geschichte.—The Belgian Traveller, 1804 and 1805, 4 vols. 12mo.—Cade's Tour through Holland. Lond. 1807, 8vo.

—H. Hassel's geogr. statist. Abr. des Konigreichs Holland. Weimar, 1809, 8vo.—Bernard's Tour in 1814, Lond. 8vo.—Tableau des habillemens, des mocurs et des contumes en Hollande. Amsterd. 1812, 4to.—Butler's Life of Grotius and Succinct Account of the History of the Netherlands. Lond. 8vo.—Jacob's View of Germany and Holland, 1820, and Corn Report, 1827.—Almanach royal des Pays Bas. Bruxelles, 8vo., and Staat's Almanack. Amsterd. 8vo.—Topographisch-militarischer Atlas von dem Kinigs. der Niederlande in 36 Blätt. Weimar, 1818 and 1819.—Stein, Bleine Geographie, Leipzig, 1826, 8vo.—Balbi's Political Scale of the Globe. Paris, 1828.

FRANCE.

Name.] The country situated between the Jura, the Alps, the Mediterranean, the Pyrenees, the Atlantic, the British Channel, the German ocean, and the course of the Rhine, did not receive the name of France till after Clovis's conquest. It was anciently named *Gaul,* from a Celtic word signifying 'a wood,' or 'woody country:' for Gaul was formerly covered with thick forests. The Romans gave it the appellation of *Gallia Transalpina,* to distinguish it from the countries of Piedmont and Lombardy, which were known by the name of *Gallia Cisalpina.*

Extent.] This country forms a part of Western Europe, and lies within the temperate zone. Its utmost extent from N. to S. is 8½°: viz. from the frontiers of Rousillon, in 42½° N. latitude, to Dunkirk in 51° 2′ N. latitude, or 590 British miles. Its greatest length from E. to W. or from the mouth of the Lauter, 6° E. of the meridian of Paris, to the most western point of the peninsula of Brittany, 7° W. of the same meridian, is 590 British miles; and, if we take it from New Brisac on the Rhine, in N. latitude 48° 5′, and 7° 40′ E. of Greenwich, to Cape Ushant in 48° 22′ N. latitude, and 5° 4′ W. of the same meridian, the length will be the same. Were it not for the peninsula of Brittany, which stretches 100 miles farther into the Atlantic than any other part of France, its form would almost resemble an oblong square. Or we may regard it as an hexagonal figure, of which the angles are as follows: viz. on the N. Dunkirk; N.E. the confluence of the Lauter and the Rhine; S.E. the embochure of the Var; S. Cape Cerbères at the eastern extremity of the Pyrenees; S.E. the embochure of the Bidassoa; and on the E. Point Saint-Mathieu, at the entrance of Brest Roads. The whole superficial area is estimated in the *Almanac royal* for 1819, at 52,562,300 hectares, or 26,281.15 square leagues of 25 to a degree; by Baron C. Dupin—whose calculations are founded on the data of the recent trigonometrical survey—at 53,533,426 hectares, or 132,694,000 English acres; by Chaptal, in 1818, at 52,000,000 hectares, or about 128,500,810 English acres; in a magnificent *Tableau Synoptique du Royaume de France,* published at Paris last year, at 52,889,672 hectares, or 130,624,000 English acres, or 204,000 British square miles; by Balbi at 205,000 square miles; and by the *Société de Géographes* of Paris at 27,000 square leagues.[1]

[1] As France has long been the habitation of ingenious and enlightened men, and geographical science has received most important improvements from the labours of natives of this country, it might have been expected that its superficial contents would have been accurately determined. We perceive, however, that so far is this from being the case, scarce any two native-authors are agreed on this point,—a circumstance which shows how little credit is to be attached to such calculations in general. This is not at all owing to the want of good maps. No country has been delineated with such geographical accuracy as France. The younger Cassini's map of this country is a work of prodigious labour, having been begun in 1744, and not finished till 1794, and containing 183 sheets, imperial folio. The National Atlas contains 108 sheets of similar size.

Boundaries.] France, as it is bounded at present, is marked as one of the separate kingdoms of Europe by natural limits on three of its sides. It has the Channel, which separates it from England on the N.; the Bay of Biscay, on the W.; and the Mediterranean, with the Pyrenean mountains, separating it from Spain on the S. Its inland boundaries, on the N.E., E., and S.E., have not been traced by the hand of Nature, but are dependant on political circumstances. At present, the boundary line commences to the N.E. of Dunkirk, betwixt it and Furnes on the coast of maritime Flanders. Thence it runs S.E., along the ancient limits of the Belgian provinces, the late bishopric of Liege, and the duchy of Bouillon. Passing onwards, it separates the grand duchy of Luxemburg from the department of the Ardennes; and thence runs in a S.E. direction, cutting the Maese, and crossing the Moselle at Syrk, where it leaves the frontier of the Netherlands, and begins to separate the Prussian dominions from France, running along the west bank of the Saare, between Sarrelouis and Bouzonville, and Sarrebruck and Sarreguemines. Thence it passes S.E., cutting the mountains Des Vosges, as far as the source of the Lauter, along whose southern bank it runs till it falls into the Rhine. The boundary then runs due S., along the Thalweg, or course of the Rhine, separating the grand duchy of Baden from France, till it reaches Huningue, where the river becomes navigable. It then turns to the W., after which it runs straight south and cuts the Vosges, then E., and then S., along the crest of the Jura, separating France from Switzerland on the E., as far as to the S. of Geneva, whence it runs south, along the Rhone, to that point where the river turns to the W.; traversing the Isère at the point where that river becomes navigable, it reaches the Cottian Alps, along which it runs in a S.E., and then a southern direction, separating France from the Sardinian States, as far as the shore of the Mediterranean. Thus the present inland boundaries of France are the United Netherlands on the N.E.; Germany and Switzerland on the E.; and Savoy and Piedmont on the S.E.

Progressive Geography.—*Roman Period.*] The progressive geography of this country has been very different at different periods of its history. It was anciently called *Gaul,* and not only comprehended what is denominated modern France, but also the duchy of Savoy,—the cantons of Switzerland, then called *Helvetia,*—the four late electorates of the Rhine: viz. the Palatinate, and the archbishoprics of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne,—and the territories of Liege, Luxemburg, Flanders, and Brabant. Julius Cæsar found this country divided into three parts, denominated *Gallia Belgica, Aquitania,* and *Gallia Propria* or *Celtica.* The Aquitani had passed, it is supposed, from Spain, and were of African origin; they had seized upon modern Gascony and Bearn, while the warlike

Perhaps no method is so well-adapted for arriving at some degree of accuracy respecting the superficial contents of any country, as that first adopted by Dr Long of Cambridge, in 1742, for ascertaining the proportions of land and water on the surface of the globe, and lately practised by Mr Jardine and Sir George Mackenzie in calculating precisely the superficial contents of Scotland. The method is, to take a copy, we shall suppose of Chaucard's map of 13 sheets, the latest and most accurate that has been yet published of France, the paper to be as nearly as possible of uniform thickness; a portion of each sheet, equal to 5,000 British miles, being carefully weighed by a balance sensible to the hundredth part of a grain when loaded with two lbs. in each scale, let each department be accurately separated by means of a sharp pointed knife, and its weight carefully compared with that portion of the sheet to which it belongs; in those districts which are indented with deep bays, arms, or inland gulfs, let these be separated and compared in a similar manner; and from these data let the land and water of each district, or department, be deduced; and the result, if not absolutely accurate, will be a near approximation at least to geographical truth.

German tribes, under the name of Belgæ, settled themselves in the north-eastern parts of Gaul, and introduced the Gothic language and manners. Celtic Gaul, which was inhabited by a people differing in their customs and language from the Belgæ and Aquitani, called in their own language *Celts*, but by the Romans *Gauls*, was further divided into *Gallia Comata*, so called because the people wore long hair,—*Gallia Braccata*, in which the people wore breeches,—and *Gallia Togata*, where the Roman *toga*, or gown, had been adopted by the inhabitants after their subjection to the Roman sway. Gallia Celtica comprehended all the territory bounded by the ocean, the Seine, the Marne, the Saone, the Rhine, and the Garonne. Belgic Gaul was bounded by the Seine, the Marne, the mountains of Vosges, the Rhine, and the sea. Aquitania lay between the ocean, the Pyrenees, and the Garonne. Gaul was afterwards divided by Augustus into 4 provinces: viz. *Narbonensis*, *Aquitania*, *Lugdunensis*, and *Belgica*. In the 4th century the *Notitia Imperii* exhibits Gaul divided into 5 provinces; and finally it was divided by Constantine the Great into 17 provinces, 6 of which were consular, and 11 under presidents who resided in the capital cities.

Under the Franks.] The modern name of France is derived from the Franks, a German tribe, or rather, as has been supposed, a motley multitude of different tribes, who, uniting themselves in defence of their liberty, against the Romans, styled themselves *Franks*,—that word signifying in their language, as it still does in ours, *free*. They inhabited that part of Germany which lies between the Rhine, the Wesser, and the German Ocean; and were known in the time of Tacitus by the names of *Chauci*, *Cherusci*, *Catti*, &c. In the 5th century, in conjunction with the Alemans, the Vandals, the Alans, and the Burgundians, the Franks crossed the Rhine, and, under Clovis, achieved the conquest of Gaul. Upon the death of Clovis, the dominion of the Franks was split into two divisions: viz. *Oesterric*, or the Eastern kingdom, corruptly called *Austrasia*, and *Westerric*, or the Western kingdom, called *Neustria*. These were again subdivided into smaller principalities, which were all re-united by Charlemagne, the founder of the Carlovingian dynasty; but, under the reign of his weak successors, France was again split into a number of feudatory principalities, though the name continued paramount through all the struggles of those little monarchies, till at last it became that of the whole kingdom.

Under the Capetian Dynasty.] Hugh Capet, the founder of the present race of sovereigns, who succeeded the last of the Carlovingian line, in 987, possessed nothing of France but Picardy, the Isle of France, and Orleanais. Berry was reunited to the crown in 1100. Touraine and Normandy were reconquered by Philip Augustus in 1200. Languedoc was annexed in 1316. The final and permanent union of Champagne to the French crown was effected in 1361. The Lyonnais came under the possession of the crown in the reign of Philip the Fair; and Dauphiné, under Philip de Valois, who received it from its last count, on condition that the eldest son of the French king should always take the title and bear the arms of the Dauphin. Poitou, Aunis, Limousin, and Saintonge, were conquered by Charles V.; and Guyenne and Gascony by Charles VII. Louis XI. obtained Maine and Anjou by inheritance,—seized the province of Burgundy, on the death of its last Duke, Charles the Bold, in 1477,—and took possession of all Provence upon the death of Charles king of Sicily, who was count of Provence. By the successive marriages of

Charles VIII. and Louis XII. with the heiress of Brittany, this last province was united to the crown of France. Francis I. confiscated the provinces of Auvergne, Bourbonnais, and Marche, and united them to his kingdom. By the accession of Henry IV. to the throne, Bearn, Foix, and part of Gascony, were added to France. Roussillon, formerly belonging to Spain, was ceded to France in 1659. Artois, formerly belonging to the Spanish Netherlands, was ceded to Louis XIV. by Charles II. of Spain. Alsace was also seized by Louis XIV. and ceded to him by the peace of Ryswick, in 1697. Franche-Comté was also seized by the same monarch in 1668, and again in 1674; and afterwards ceded and confirmed to him by the treaties of Nimeguen and Ryswick. That part of the Netherlands which France is still permitted to retain, was acquired by conquest during the reign of Louis XIV. Lorraine was the last acquisition of France previous to the late revolution: Louis XV. having, upon the death of his father-in-law, Stanislaus, seized upon the duchy of Lorraine, properly so called, and also the duchy of Bar, both of which were afterwards ceded to him by treaty.

Present Limits.] France, by the treaty of Paris in 1814, was reduced nearly to the same limits that bounded it previously to the revolution, although by that treaty, she actually obtained an extension of territory, and an additional population of 700,000 persons; but, by the treaty of November 20th, 1815, she was compelled to part with these acquisitions, and also to cede the fortresses of Philippeville and Marienburg, with their dependant districts in French Hainault, together with the whole duchy of Bouillon, to the sovereign prince of the Netherlands,—the fortress of Sare-Louis, and the course of the Saare, to Prussia,—and the important fortress of Landau, with all the left bank of the Lauter, to Germany. Part of the county of the Gex, and the town of Versoix, was also ceded to the Helvetic Confederacy.

Divisions.] Before the revolution, France was divided into 32 provinces, or distinct governments. By a new arrangement in 1790, it was divided into 83 departments; and subsequently the addition of Corsica, and of the Venaissin or department of Vaucluse, together with the formation of the department of the Garonne and Tarn, completed the present number of 86 departments. But as the old divisions, though no longer subservient to the political organization of the country, still continue to be referred to, and are firmly incorporated with the language, they shall be enumerated, along with their corresponding departments, and the population of each department, as stated by the *Société de Géographes* of Paris in 1828. We must also observe, that each department is subdivided into districts, called *arrondissements*, of which there are 368 in the kingdom. These districts are again divided into 2,669 *cantons;* and finally, each canton is composed of a certain number of *communes*, that is to say, of towns and villages, of which there are 38,990 at present. A commune is sometimes a single town, and sometimes several villages united, possessing a mayor and communal municipality. All the considerable cities are divided into several communes.

ANCIENT GOVERNMENTS	DEPARTMENTS. NAMES.	Surface in sq. leag.	POPUL.	No. of Inh. in sq. lea.
REGION OF THE NORTH.				
Flandre,	Nord,	300	962,648	3,208
Artois,	Pas-de-Calais,	325	642,969	1,978
Picardy,	Somme,	310	526,282	1,697
Normandy,	Seine-Inferieure,	322	688,295	2,137
	Eure,	300	421,665	1,405
	Calvados,	282	500,956	1,776
	Manche,	338	611,206	1,808
	Orne,	319	434,379	1,361
Ile-de-France,	Seine,	22	1,013,373	46,062
	Seine-et-Oise,	287	440,871	1,536
	Seine-et-Marne,	300	318,209	1,060
	Oise,	304	385,124	1,266
	Aisne,	375	489,560	1,305
Champagne,	Ardennes,	280	281,624	1,005
	Marne,	424	325,045	766
	Aube,	300	241,762	805
	Haute-Marne,	325	244,823	753
Lorraine,	Meuse,	314	306,339	975
	Moselle,	290	409,155	1,410
	Meurthe,	320	403,038	1,567
	Vosges,	295	379,839	1,287
REGION OF THE CENTRE.				
Orleanais,	Loiret,	350	304,228	869
	Eure-et-Loir,	307	277,782	904
	Loir-et-Cher,	335	230,666	688
Touraine,	Indre-et-Loire,	325	290,160	892
Berry,	Indre,	370	237,628	641
	Cher,	373	248,589	666
Nivernais,	Nièvre,	372	271,777	730
Bourbonnais,	Allier,	373	285,302	764
Marche,	Creuse,	298	252,932	848
Limousin,	Haute-Vienne,	283	276,351	976
	Corrèze,	296	284,882	961
Auvergne,	Puy-de-Dôme,	425	566,573	1,333
	Cantal,	255	262,013	1,027
REGION OF THE WEST.				
Maine,	Sarthe,	325	446,519	1,373
	Mayenne,	275	354,138	1,287
Anjou,	Maine-et-Loire,	383	458,674	1,197
Bretagne,	Ille-et-Vilaine,	359	553,453	1,541
	Côtes-du-Nord,	360	581,684	1,615
	Finistère,	362	502,851	1,389
	Morbihan,	355	427,453	1,204
	Loire-Inférieure,	383	457,090	1,193
Poitou,	Vienne,	366	267,670	731
	Deux-Sèvres,	320	288,260	900
	Vendée,	362	322,826	891
Aunis.—Saintonge et Angoumois,	Charente-Inférieure,	366	424,147	1,158
	Charente,	300	353,653	1,178
Carry Forward,		15,210	17,914,463	

ANCIENT GOVERNMENTS.	DEPARTMENTS. NAMES.	Surface in sq. leag.	POPUL.	No. of Inh. in sq. lea.
Brought Forward, ...		15,210	17,914,463	
REGION OF THE EAST.				
Alsace, ...	Haut-Rhin, ...	200	408,741	2,043
	Bas-Rhin, ...	240	535,467	2,231
Franche-Comté, ...	Haute-Saône, . . .	278	327,641	1,178
	Doubs, ...	266	254,314	956
	Jura, ...	262	310,282	1,146
Bourgogne, ...	Yonne, ...	370	342,116	870
	Côte-d'Or, ...	459	370,943	799
	Saône-et-Loire, . . .	447	515,776	1,153
	Ain, ...	271	341,628	1,260
Lyonnais, ...	Rhône, ...	147	416,575	2,833
	Loire, ...	256	369,298	1,442
REGION OF THE SOUTH.				
Languedoc, ...	Haute-Loire, . . .	243	285,673	1,175
	Ardèche, ...	240	328,419	1,368
	Lozère, ...	272	138,778	510
	Gard, ...	290	347,550	1,198
	Hérault, ...	326	339,560	1,041
	Tarn, ...	280	327,655	1,170
	Aude, ...	321	265,991	828
	Haute-Garonne, . .	310	407,016	1,312
Roussillon, ...	Pyrénées-Orientales, .	220	151,372	688
Comte de Foix, ...	Ariège, ...	245	247,932	1,011
Guyenne et Gascogne, .	Dordogne, ...	480	464,074	973
	Gironde, ...	550	538,151	978
	Lot-et-Garonne, . .	290	336,886	1,161
	Lot, ...	270	280,515	1,038
	Tarn-et-Garonne, . .	190	241,586	1,220
	Aveyron, ...	463	350,014	755
	Landes, ...	479	265,309	553
	Gers, ...	343	307,601	896
	Hautes-Pyrénées, . .	246	222,059	902
Bearn, ...	Basses-Pyrénées, .	405	412,469	1,018
Dauphinè, ...	Isère, ...	453	525,984	1,160
	Drôme, ...	336	285,791	850
	Hautes-Alpes, . . .	230	125,329	545
Comtat-Venaissin et comtat d'Avignon, . .	Vaucluse, ...	185	233,048	1,259
Provence, ...	Basses-Alpes, . . .	273	153,063	560
	Bouches-du-Rhône, .	266	326,302	1,226
	Var, ...	380	311,095	818
Corsica, ...	Corsica, ...	440	185,079	420
Total, ...		27,440	31,851,545	

CHAP. I.—HISTORY.

The Gauls.] The earliest accounts of France, as indeed of almost all the nations of Europe, are to be found in the historians of Rome. When Gaul first became an object of Roman ambition, it was peopled by the

Celts or Gauls,—tribes possessing much bravery, and long opposing very formidable obstacles to the progress of the Roman arms. By Julius Cæsar this country was at length subdued; and, though the submission of its inhabitants was always somewhat doubtful, Gaul continued to be accounted a Roman province until the dissolution of the Western empire laid the foundation of those divisions of territory, which, at present, are found in Europe.

The Franks.] The German tribe of the Franks inhabited the country around the Middle Rhine when those convulsions took place which shook the Roman empire to its foundation. This barbarous but warlike tribe perceiving the decay of Roman discipline and valour, first entered the province of Gaul during the reign of Valerian, about the year 254. They were at this time, and at many subsequent periods, repelled; but, persevering in their efforts, they succeeded in establishing a monarchy in Flanders; and about 420 we find them governed by Pharamond, a prince of their own race, who reigned at Tournay.

Clovis I.] Clovis, the son of Childeric I., having gained the battle of Soissons against the Roman general Siagrius in 485, expelled the Romans from the whole territory between the Rhine and the Loire, and laid the first permanent foundation of the French monarchy. Influenced by the persuasions of his wife Clotilde, Clovis received baptism in the year 496 at the hands of Remigius, archbishop of Rheims; and the legend tells that a dove brought from heaven a small bottle of oil with which he was solemnly anointed by Remigius after having been crowned king of the Franks. This holy oil is still used for the anointment of the kings of France. To secure his numerous conquests, and, perhaps, in his own view, to acquire a better right to them, he assumed the title of *Roman consul*, and *Augustus*. The nation of the Armoricans who inhabited the country between the Seine, the Loire, and the Ocean, voluntarily submitted to Clovis, who established his seat of empire at Paris, after having slain Alaric king of the Visigoths in the battle of Vouillé, near Poitiers, and taken possession of all the country between the Loire and the Pyrenees. Clovis died in 511 at the age of 45; though a murderer, he is enrolled in the calendar of Catholic saints. He is supposed by some to have enacted the *Salique law*, which, in France, excludes females from the crown, though others refer it to a more remote period.

Childebert to Clotaire II.] The death of Clovis was followed by the partition of his dominions among his four sons, Thierry, Clodomir, Clotaire, and Childebert, a circumstance which proved fatal to the tranquillity of the country. Clotaire mounted the throne without a rival in 560. He died in 562; and repeated his father's error by leaving his monarchy to his four sons. The brothers divided the kingdom by lot, and soon afterwards Sigebert, king of Austrasia, was assassinated. Chilperic, king of Soissons, another of the brothers, shared the same fate; and Gontran, king of Orleans, one of the remaining brothers, died in 593: so that Childebert, the survivor, was now sole monarch. He died in 596, and was succeeded by his two sons Theodobert and Thierry; but as they were both very young, the kingdom was placed under the regency of Brunehaut, the widow of Sigebert. No sooner had the brothers attained that age at which they were capable of managing the reins of government than they quarrelled, and Theodobert lost his life in the struggle which followed. Thierry died in 612; and Clotaire II., the son of Chilperic by Fredegonde, succeeded to the whole kingdom, which he enjoyed without a rival, until his death in 628.

Maires du Palais.] It would be tedious to follow minutely the distracted history of the Merovingian race of monarchs. It consists of little else than a continued series of usurpations and murders. By degrees, the monarchs, through the superior influence of the *Maires du Palais*, or 'the mayors of the palace,' were rendered merely nominal sovereigns. This dignity became hereditary, in 687, in the person of Pepin-Héristel. Charles Martel, who had raised himself to this office, exercised his power with vigour and prudence. He defeated the Saracens, and slew their king Abdérame, in a great battle betwixt Tours and Poitiers, in 732, and conquered the Frisons in 733. After the death of Thierry II., Charles Martel held the reins of government during the *interregnum*, under the title of *Duke of France.* At his death in 741, his son, Pepin the Short, succeeded to the regency and conducted the affairs of the kingdom with great prudence. He caused Childeric III. to be proclaimed king, in 742; but that prince soon proved himself incapable of swaying the rod of empire, and was sent by his dissatisfied nobles to spend the remainder of his days in the monastery of St-Bertin, where the last of the Merovingian dynasty expired in 754.

Pepin the Short.] Pepin was now proclaimed king of France at Soissons, and continued to augment his dominions by several important conquests. He made himself master of Bretagne and Narbonne; protected the Pope from the insults of Astolphus, king of the Lombards; laid the foundation of his Holiness's temporal power, by bestowing on him the Exarchate of Ravenna; reduced the Saxons and Gascons; drove the Saracens out of the land; and, at the death of duke Waifre, added Aquitaine to his other territories. This prince, who seems to have united in his person both the virtues and the vices of a conqueror, died at St-Denis, on the 24th of September 768, after a reign of 17 years. The epitaph which was inscribed upon his tomb, was: *Pepin, père de Charlemagne.*

Charlemagne.] Pepin was succeeded by his two sons, Carloman and Charles; of whom the latter was afterwards distinguished by the name of Charlemagne. The death of Carloman in 771, left Charles sole monarch of his father's dominions, and free to exert those superior powers which afterwards rendered him so remarkable. Having already sketched the reign of this monarch in our history of Germany, we need not return upon it here. The latter part of his existence was embittered by the death of his children, all of whom he survived, with the exception of Louis whom he associated with himself in the government. After this transaction, the life of Charles lasted only a few months. He died in the beginning of the year 814, after a career almost continually prosperous and generally directed to the benefit of those whom he governed. Under his sway the coasts of Provence and Languedoc became enlivened by commerce with the Mediterranean; the merchants of Marseilles trafficked with those of Alexandria, Damascus, and Bagdad; and the pirates of the North were compelled to respect his power.

Louis I. or le Debonnaire.] Charles is said to have given to his son Louis many excellent maxims for the government of the empire; but Louis, a weak and superstitious prince, was ill-qualified to govern a country so extensive and variously peopled. Louis was mild and gentle, better qualified to cultivate the arts of peace than of war, and altogether too indecisive to curb the insolent conduct of many of his subjects. Previous to his accession to the empire, he had espoused Ermengarde, daughter of the count of Hesbai, in Liege; and to lighten the weight of a crown,

he now associated with himself in the government his three sons by that princess, Lothaire, Pepin, and Louis, assigning to each of them a different portion of his dominions. This step laid the foundation of numerous troubles, in the midst of which Ermengarde died, and the emperor espoused Judith, a princess of Bavaria. The birth of a fourth son, Charles, by his new empress, augmented the father's misfortunes: Judith was ambitious and designing, and prevailed upon the emperor, who greatly loved her, to bestow on her son a considerable share of his dominions. This proceeding united the elder brothers against their father, and rendered his whole reign a continued train of civil wars. Louis died in 840; and at last, after many bloody struggles between his sons, the treaty of Verdun was signed in 843, by which the German and Lombardian crowns were for ever separated from that of France, which fell to the share of Charles the Bald. From this epoch the history of France as a separate kingdom may be considered to begin.

Charles the Bald.] The Normans, who had begun their depradations in the reign of Charlemagne, continued them with renewed vigour during the troubles which succeeded his death; and Charles found them such formidable foes, that he was willing to purchase peace from them at a vast sum, which, however, acted merely as a bribe to induce them to renew their attacks with greater violence. The people of Bretagne—who had always reluctantly submitted to the French yoke—seized the opportunity of the consternation caused by the Normans, to revolt, and defeated Charles's troops; while to increase the misfortunes of France, the Danes appeared on the north-western shores. The invasions of the Normans at length became so formidable, that the people of Bretagne themselves joined their forces with those of Charles against whom they had so long carried on hostilities. Charles now attacked his northern foes, and completely defeated them. Elated by this victory, he claimed the imperial crown, which had become vacant by the death of Louis, but which certainly belonged to his son; but his attention was called from the prosecution of this claim by the intelligence that the Normans had again successfully invaded his frontiers. Scarcely had he repelled these invaders, when he was called by the Pope to oppose the Saracens in Italy, but was prevented by his nobles, who refused to enter Italy with him. This affront made so strong an impression on Charles's mind, that he was attacked by sickness, and, in consequence of the unskilfulness, or, as has been affirmed, the treachery of his physician, a Jew named Sedecias, he sunk under the disease in 877.

Louis II. to Louis V.] Louis, from a defect in his speech surnamed *le Bègue*, or 'the Stammerer,' succeeded his father. He was deficient in that prudence and vigour which were necessary to govern a rude people, and in that bravery which was requisite to defend his kingdom. After a short and feeble reign, during which he divided a great part of his domains into Seigneuries, Fiefs, Duchies, and Counties, which he weakly bestowed upon his greedy courtiers, he died in 879. After his death, Louis III. and Carloman divided the kingdom. The former dying in 882, Carloman reigned alone till 884, when he was killed while hunting in the forest of Yvelines, and a scene of faction and confusion followed, which was terminated by placing the emperor of Germany, known by the name of Charles the Gross, on the throne of France. Charles seems to have owed his election more to faction than to personal merit; so feeble was his administration, that he was altogether incapable of defending the kingdom which had been bestowed upon him. The

Normans had obtained leave to settle in Friesland, and had now become so daring, that, with a fleet of 1,200 vessels, they sailed up the Seine, and laid siege to Paris, which they blockaded for 3 years. The count Eudes and the bishop Goslin bravely repelled all the attacks of these invaders, while Charles remained inactive at the head of a large army near Montmartre, and finally purchased an inglorious peace from the assailants. Disgusted at such weakness, his army deserted him, and he retired to Germany, where he died in obscurity. Eudes, count of Paris, was proclaimed king in a great national assembly held at Compiégne in 889. He died in 898, and was succeeded by Charles, son of Louis le Begue, whose weakness obtained for him the appellation of 'the Simple.' He suffered his nobles to increase their power, already too extensive; and found no better method of appeasing his enemies than by yielding them part of his territories. In the treaty of St-Claire-sur-Epte, along with the hand of his daughter Giselle, he delivered to Rollo, a Norman chief, that part of the province of Neustria, then known by the name of Normandy, with a great part of the seigneury of Brittany, under the single stipulation that he should become a Christian, and do homage for his duchy. Charles died in 929. The Carlovingian race of monarchs had now degenerated much from the character borne by their ancestors, who, from being mayors of the palace, had stept into the throne of their masters. Each succeeding monarch surpassed in timidity and irresolution his predecessor, while the nobles were daily accumulating new influence, and arrogating to themselves a greater share of authority. Such continued to be the characters of several successive monarchs. At length, Hugh Capet, duke of France, supplanted the descendants of Pepin, in a manner somewhat similar to that by which Pepin himself had supplanted the kings of the Merovingian line. This revolution, which happened in 987, was effected without disturbance. The monarch then on the throne, Louis V., had not abilities sufficient to vindicate his own cause; and his people thought him too insignificant to make any exertion in his favour. The French kingdom was at this period a limited monarchy, in which no fewer than 40 powerful vassals exercised such privileges as rendered the king little more than *primus inter pares*.

Hugh Capet.] The founder of the Capetien, or third dynasty of France, displayed the talents necessary in the management of a rude and warlike people; he preserved his kingdom at once from external insults and internal commotions; and the same firm and undaunted character which gave him the ascendency over his own subjects, rendered him terrible to his enemies. After a short, but prosperous reign, he died in 996, leaving his dominions to his son, Robert, whom he had already associated with himself in the government.

Robert.] Robert, who succeeded to his father's kingdom, seemed to inherit some of his father's virtues, but too little, unfortunately, of his firmness. Pope Gregory lorded it over his conscience, and his extreme moderation led him to refuse not only the kingdom of Italy, but the imperial crown of Germany, to obtain which some of his predecessors had vainly struggled. He died in 1031.

Henry I.] When Henry, Robert's eldest son, mounted the throne, he found himself opposed by his mother, Constance, who wished to procure the crown for his younger brother, Robert. She excited the count of Flanders to raise the standard of rebellion; but by the aid of Robert, duke of Normandy, Henry succeeded in establishing himself in security. Gratitude induced him to support William, Robert's natural son, in the pos-

session of his duchy; but the latter soon became so powerful that Henry thought it advisable by every method, to curtail his dominions. At first he secretly supported William's opponents in Normandy; afterwards he invaded in person that part of his territories, but being defeated, was compelled to submit to whatever terms the Norman prince chose to offer. This laid the foundation of that rancour which afterwards subsisted between the monarchs of France and of England. Henry died in 1060, and was succeeded by his son Philip. The *Comes Stabuli*, Constableship, or 'Countship of the Stable,' first became a State-office in the person of Alberic, during Henry's reign.

Philip I.] The same animosity which Henry had entertained against William of Normandy, was inherited by his son, when William, by the conquest of England, had so greatly augmented his importance. Philip, indeed, in every part of his conduct, evinced a disposition treacherous and mean. He divorced his first wife, under pretence of consanguinity. He then concluded a treaty of marriage with Emma, a Calabrian princess; but when she arrived in France, he retained the treasure which she had brought along with her, but sent her back to her father. Finally he took the countess of Anjou from her husband, and compelling him to divorce her, made her his queen. Such conduct disgusted many of his subjects, and afforded a pretext to the more licentious part of them for enormities of every description. A general laxity of government took place, and a revolt might have been the consequence, had not his son Louis, by his prudent and decisive conduct, retained the factious barons in subjection. Louis, however, incurred the displeasure of the queen, who compelled him to take shelter for a time in England.

Louis VI.] Louis le Gros, or 'the Fat,' a prince remarkable for his many virtues, succeeded his father in 1108. Louis supported Robert when the English monarch had deprived him of the duchy of Normandy. Henry defeated the forces of Louis at Brenneville, and compelled him to agree to a peace very advantageous to the former. The French king, however, renewed his intrigues in favour of Robert; and Henry had again recourse to war, and in 1124 prepared to invade France on one hand, while the emperor of Germany was to invade it on the other. The danger of the moment united the refractory nobles, and Louis appeared at the head of an army of 200,000 men, which deterred either of his enemies from executing their threat. Louis would gladly have retaliated by the invasion of Normandy; but the unanimity of his nobles vanished with the present danger, and the king found it convenient to desist. The death of Louis happened in 1137.

Louis VII.] The reign of Louis VII., surnamed *le Jeune*, son of the preceding monarch, was undistinguished, either by the happy cultivation of the arts of peace, or the splendour of martial achievements. Louis was more than commonly superstitious, even in a superstitious age. Having caused 1,300 persons to be burned to the death in the church of Vitry-en-Perthois, in the course of a war with Fribault, count of Champagne, at the instigation of St Bernard, he undertook a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, attended by a guard of 60,000 gendarmes, or gentlemen-at-arms, every one of whom was accompanied by five or six retainers, in the quality of squires and valets. His queen, Eleonore, heiress of Guyenne and Poitou, went along with him, but more intent on the cultivation of pleasure than of piety, her freedoms so offended her husband, that at his return, he divorced her. Henry, duke of Normandy, count of Anjou and Maine,

who thought that no scrupulous delicacy ought to intervene in the pursuit of power, married the repudiated queen, and received with her, as her dowry, those two valuable provinces, which, with such dependencies as Aunis, Saintonge, Angoumois, Périgord, Quercy, Limousin, and Rouergue, rendered the vassal three times more powerful than his sovereign, and precipitated France into a scene of disastrous conflicts which lasted upwards of 300 years. It was during the reign of this prince that the council of Rheims was held in 1148 by Eugene III., and the university of Paris founded. He died in 1180.

Philip II. and Louis VIII.] Philip, the son and successor of Louis, governed his kingdom with such uniform good fortune, that historians have honoured him with the sirname of *Augustus.* Philip's greatness consisted not in generosity, bravery, or inflexible adherence to justice; he owed his success and his reputation to his unremitting attention to what are called the arts of policy, and the situation of England at the time. The reign of John the Landless was tumultuous and distracted, and gave France a superiority which Philip carefully improved to his own advantage. He drove the English from Normandy, Perche, Anjou, Touraine, Poitou, and Limousin; and annexed Auvergne, Artois, and Picardy to the crown of France. His reign was marked by the first creation of Mareshalls of France; by the council of Paris held in 1210; by the council-general of the Lateran held by Innocent III.; and the crusade against the Albigenses. He died at Mantes in 1223, after a reign of 43 years, leaving his crown to Louis VIII., who has rendered his brief reign for ever infamous by the massacre of Béziers, in which 60,000 Albigenses perished.

Saint Louis.] Louis IX. was a prince so deeply tinctured with the prevalent religious opinions of his time, and so anxious to practise whatever that religion recommended, that he obtained from the grateful ecclesiastics of his age the title of *Saint.* The rage of crusading was then in its vigour; and so religious a prince could not avoid taking part in so pious a duty. His success, however, was not equal to his intentions; for landing in Egypt, he found in the Saracens a dreadful enemy, by whom he was made prisoner in the battle of Pharanié, and, it is said, treated with cruelty. Having obtained his ransom by the surrender of Damietta, he remained four years longer in Palestine, seeking to wipe away the stain of his disgrace by the performance of some valorous action. His ordonnance of 1254 declaring, that in all matters touching the interests of the people, the three Estates of the kingdom should be consulted, is the most honourable monument to his memory. He founded the Sorbonne, abolished wager of battle, and headed a new crusade to Tunis in which he died of the plague in 1270. The errors of Saint Louis seem to have been those of his age; he had all the valour of a brave man, and many of the virtues of a good king.

Philip III. to Charles IV.] Philip, surnamed the Hardy, succeeded his father, and, like him, prosecuted the war against the infidels, but with greater success, obliging the Saracens to submit to terms honourable if not advantageous to the Christians. He ceded the county of Venaisson to Pope Gregory. During his reign, the dreadful massacre known by the appellation of that of the Sicilian Vespers, was committed upon the French inhabitants of Sicily, on the 29th of March, 1282, at the instigation of Peter III., king of Arragon. Philip the Hardy was succeeded in 1285 by his son, likewise called Philip, and distinguished by the appellation of the Fair. He continued the war begun with Spain by his father

with various success, until, by the intervention of Edward I. of England, peace was concluded. His reign was distinguished by his quarrel with Pope Boniface VIII.,—a brief war with England,—the admission of a *Tiers-etat* or national representative into the States-general,—and the cruel persecution of the Knights-Templars and Jews, begun apparently with the view of enriching the royal coffers by the confiscation of the large estates held by these orders of men in the kingdom. Louis X., sometimes called *Le Hutin* or the Boisterous, succeeded his father in 1315; his talents for government appear to have been of a very inferior order, and he committed the cares of administration almost entirely to his uncle, Charles of Valois. He died suddenly in 1316; and Charles, unwilling to relinquish that power which for some time he had enjoyed, prepared to dispute the succession with the brothers of the late king; but his cruelty had disgusted all ranks, and he found few to favour his pretensions. Philip of Poitou, the elder of the remaining sons of Philip the Fair, was unanimously placed upon the throne; but the late king's widow was delivered of a son, who, had he lived, as he was the rightful heir of the crown, might have proved to Philip a more dangerous rival than his uncle Charles. The infant, however, survived only eight days; yet, notwithstanding his ephemeral existence, prince John is usually enrolled among the kings of France. Philip, who, from his stature, was distinguished by the name of the Long, was now securely fixed upon the throne. He commenced his career by a successful war against the Flemings, who for some time had been victorious over the armies of France; but his reign was short, and was occupied chiefly in several ineffectual attempts to regulate the internal police of his kingdom. Charles IV., likewise called Charles the Fair, the brother of the two former sovereigns, succeeded to the crown in 1322; but distinguished his reign only by a visionary scheme for obtaining the empire of Germany. He died in 1328, and with him expired the dynasty of the Capetiens.

Philip VI.] At the death of Charles, his queen was pregnant, so that a regent became necessary. Philip of Valois, and Edward III. of England, the grandson of Philip the Fair by the mother's side, appeared as candidates, each of them affirming, that not only the regency, but the crown itself, rightfully belonged to them. Philip, however, was elected to the important office; and, when the queen was delivered of a daughter, Philip was declared king upon the Salic law. Edward's disappointment laid the foundation of an animosity which terminated in a war more inveterate than any which had yet taken place between the two countries. The jealousy of the rival monarchs showed itself on several occasions before it broke out into open hostilities. Philip summoned the English king to do homage for his territories in France; but Edward neglected to obey the summons, therefore Philip declared his territories to be forfeited. Edward, for some time, was engaged in his favourite scheme of the conquest of Scotland; but finding this to be a tedious, if not an impracticable undertaking, he resolved to renew his pretensions to the crown of France, and in 1338, landed at Sluys, where, by the influence of Arteville, a brewer, he gained the Flemings to his cause, and marched into France with an army of 50,000 men, but terminated his first expedition in a manner somewhat abrupt. The English parliament however favoured the project, and having furnished Edward with abundant supplies, he fitted out a large fleet, with which he met the French fleet in June, 1340, and gained a complete victory over it. Edward immediately landed his troops, and laid siege to Tournay. Philip came to its relief, and acted with such skill that he almost blockaded

the besieging army. At length, by the intervention of Edward's mother-in-law, Philip's sister, a truce was concluded for a year. The invitation of the Duke of Mountfort, who had taken possession of Bretagne, induced Edward, in 1341, to send a body of forces into France, but on this occasion he displayed no great extent of military skill, though he obtained leave to withdraw his troops, and procured a truce for three years. Edward had consented to the truce only for temporary reasons, and soon found an opportunity of breaking it. He insisted that the execution of certain noblemen of Bretagne, who had favoured the cause of Mountfort, was contrary to the treaty; and, in 1346, again landed in France, with an army of 30,000 men. Philip, in the meantime, had over-run the greater part of the English possessions upon the continent. Edward had no sooner landed at St-Vaast-la-Hougue, in Lower Normandy, than he took and plundered the city of Caen, and advanced even to the neighbourhood of Paris. Philip, to oppose the English, had collected an army, amounting, it is said, to 120,000 men, when the impetuous bravery of Edward once more led him into a dangerous situation, where he saw himself under the necessity either of fighting with a great inferiority of numbers, or of starving in his camp. He hesitated not in his choice, but passing the Somme, engaged the French, and gained the splendid victory of Cressy. Calais, at that time a place of the greatest importance, next fell into the hands of the victorious monarch. But though Edward had gained a greater superiority in the field than he could reasonably have expected, he found himself unable to sustain the great expense of the war, and signified his willingness to agree to a truce. The mediation of the Pope was accepted, and a truce for three years was again concluded. While this truce yet lasted, Philip died in 1350.

John Le Bon.] John, surnamed *Le Bon*, or 'the Good,' upon the death of his father ascended the throne of France, and soon found himself involved in a war with England. No sooner were the three years expired, than Edward sent an army to attack the French territory, under his son, the Black Prince. The prince sailed up the Garonne, ravaged Languedoc, and then retired into Guyenne; thence he proceeded to Calais, unmolested by the French, and again embarked for England, but in a short time returned with an army of 12,000 men, and rashly penetrated into the interior of France, in hopes of being able to effect a junction with the duke of Lancaster, who was to advance with an army from Guyenne. John at the head of 70,000 men moved to attack the prince, and every thing threatened destruction to his little army; nevertheless, in a battle, well-known by the name of the battle of Poictiers, the English prince gained a complete victory and took the French monarch prisoner. The captivity of the French king was extremely unfortunate for his dominions, for the management of the kingdom devolved on the Dauphin, a prince at that time very young, and the nobles took the advantage of the absence of their monarch to make encroachments on the power of the crown, while the peasants, on the other hand, rose against their oppressive nobles, in the civil war of Jacquerie, in which 100,000 of the former perished. To complete the misfortunes of the miserable kingdom, Edward, in 1359, appeared before Calais with a numerous army. Conferences for a peace were soon opened, and concluded in terms sufficiently honourable to the English. The territory which they formerly possessed in France was augmented by considerable additions; and John was to be liberated on condition of paying a great ransom. When John revisited his native

kingdom, he found great part of it laid waste by his enemies, and a greater part by his turbulent subjects, yet such was the passion of the king for military renown, or such his mistaken piety, that he immediately declared his resolution of engaging in one of those preposterous expeditions known by the name of crusades. So far however was he from being able to furnish the treasure necessary for such an expedition, that he could not raise the sum required for his own ransom, and disdaining, according to some, to receive his freedom without having paid the stipulated price, or allured, according to others, by the charms of the countess of Salisbury, he returned to England, where, in 1384, his existence terminated.

Charles V.] Charles the Wise, though his military talents were not the most splendid, yet by his political address placed his kingdom in a flourishing condition. His constable Duguesclin defeated the king of Navarre at Cocherel in Normandy, and drove the English troops from Guyenne, Poitou, and various other places. Wherever Charles made his appearance, the inhabitants gladly received him, and threw off the yoke of the English. The southern districts were for some time prevented from falling into the hands of Charles, by the presence of the Black Prince; but the pressure of disease compelled him to return to England. Edward once more resolved to exert himself in recovering his diminished renown; but, in every quarter, the English were baffled, not defeated in any single encounter, but worn out by continual inroads. The Black Prince, the bravest general of that age, died soon after his return to England; and the death of Edward soon followed. The French now attacked the English on every hand, and, in their efforts, were so successful, that, in 1377, the English could boast but of few possessions upon the continent. Charles thus succeeded in restoring the integrity of his dominions, but did not long enjoy the fruits of his prudence; he died in 1380.

Charles VI.] Charles VI. was, at the death of his father, only 12 years of age. It was necessary to appoint a regency, and the minority of the king was attended with all those disorders, which, when the forms of government are not regularly settled, and where the nobles possess much independent power, are unavoidable. When he assumed into his own hands the reins of government, the prudence of his administration seemed to promise the continuance of that good fortune which had distinguished his father's reign; but he remained subject to fits of lunacy, and his whole reign became a kind of minority. Henry V. having ascended the English throne, resolved to take advantage of the distracted state of France, to regain those possessions in that kingdom which had been held by the former English monarchs, and having resolved on war, found no difficulty in discovering a pretext. He despatched an ambassador to the French court, demanding those provinces which had belonged to his ancestors, and offering to take as his queen, Catherine, the daughter of the French king. Henry certainly could not expect that his extravagant demand should meet with compliance; but he deemed the refusal a sufficient cause of war, and embarking with an army of 30,000 men, he took Harfleur by storm, and marched into the interior. At length, the French, though divided by faction, seemed to unite for the purpose of repelling the common enemy, and an army of 54,000 prepared to intercept the march of Henry, who, perceiving that his army was rapidly diminishing by disease, thought only of retreating to Calais. When he came to the plains of Agincourt, he found the French force drawn up in such a way that he was under the necessity of fighting; and notwithstanding the great disparity of numbers, and the despondency

which disease is apt to generate, he hesitated not to hazard a battle; reminding the soldiers of the military character of their forefathers, and animating them by his own example, he led them to the charge, and gained that signal victory, which still distinguishes his name, on the 25th of October, 1415. This memorable battle procured to Henry a safe retreat, but had no other important consequences. In 1417, he again landed in Normandy with 25,000 men, and found France, if possible, in a more wretched condition than formerly. So far from being vigorously opposed, his aid was eagerly courted by the head of one of the contending factions, the young duke of Burgundy, now thirsting to avenge the death of his father, who had been murdered by the adherents of the duke of Orleans. Favoured by the chief of a party so powerful, Henry overran the greater part of the kingdom; and, at length, by the treaty of Troyes, which was sanctioned by Burgundy, and dictated by Henry himself, France was in effect given up to the English; it being agreed that Henry should espouse the French princess, Catherine; that Charles, during his life, should enjoy the name and dignity of a king; but that Henry should be the heir of the crown, as well as possess the present administration; and that France and England should ever after the accession of Henry have but one king, though each nation should enjoy its respective laws and privileges. Henry's parliament doubted whether it might be for the advantage of England that its king should mount the throne of France, and were not lavish in their grants. But Henry's influence was sufficient to procure him a considerable sum, which he augmented by contributions levied on the conquered provinces; and in a short time he again sailed with an army of 28,000 men, and arrived in time to check the Dauphin, who, with a small body of his adherents, and some auxiliaries from Scotland, had defeated a body of English under the duke of Clarence. Henry did not long survive his second expedition into France; and his death was soon followed by that of Charles VI.; whereupon, according to the treaty just mentioned, Henry VI. though yet an infant, was solemnly acknowledged king of France. A small party, however, retained their allegiance to their native princes, disowned any submission to England, and crowned the Dauphin by the name of Charles VII. Notwithstanding all disadvantages, such was the prudence of Charles, that he not only maintained the power of his adherents, but gradually regained that kingdom of which the English had deprived him. The duke of Bedford, the English regent, though brave, and qualified to plan with wisdom and to act with vigour, was not supported with supplies from England, and, consequently, found himself daily less able to withstand the growing power of the Dauphin; while Jean d'Arc, the heroic Maid of Orleans, concerning whom it is difficult to determine whether she was a real enthusiast or only the instrument of the politic Charles, succeeded in rousing the drooping spirits of her countrymen, and from being every where defeated, rendered them every where victorious. To revive, in some measure, the English affairs in France, Henry VI. was crowned in Paris, in 1430. At the siege of Compiègne, the Maid of Orleans was made prisoner, and meanly put to death by the English. But a new Amazon arose in the person of Agnes Sorel, who by the victories of Formigny and Castillon compelled the invaders of her country not only to abandon their recent conquests, but to relinquish all those possessions which, for many centuries, had been considered as their own. In 1450, all that remained to the English of their former French territory, was the city of Calais, and the isles of Jersey and Guernsey.

Louis XI.] Louis, now 39 years of age, ascended the throne of his father in 1461. His cruelty and perfidy irritated his own subjects, and caused many combinations to be formed against him by foreign princes; but his vigour and steadiness of conduct constantly baffled all the designs of his enemies, and rescued him from the dangers that sometimes threatened him. After he had freed himself from all apprehensions from external foes, he turned his fury against the powerful nobles of France, and crushing them by every method in his power, he succeeded at last in seizing all their authority, and annexing it to the crown. He thus rendered himself in a great measure absolute, and laid the foundation of that despotic form of government, by which, till the late Revolution, France was distinguished. Louis died at the chateau of Plessis-les-Tours in 1483.

Charles VIII.] Charles VIII., at the death of his father, was only 14 years of age; it was, therefore, thought requisite to appoint a regent to take the charge of the government till the young king should arrive at a more mature age. For this important office there were several candidates; and, what is somewhat remarkable, among these candidates was Anne, the eldest daughter of Louis, known by the title of the Lady Beaujeu, who, though herself only entered into her 22nd year, was preferred to the office. The administration of this lady was distinguished by the prudent measures which she adopted for the purpose of obliterating her father's cruelty, and for reconciling to her authority those who were at first averse to her election. The death of the duke of Bretagne placed his duchy in the hands of his daughter, Anne, at that time only 13 years of age. The value of her dowry brought her many suitors; but the young king of France, though already betrothed to Margaret, daughter of Maximilian, prevailed over all his competitors. Maximilian himself was appeased by the cession of part of Artois. Notwithstanding the unfavourable presages of the greater part of his council, Charles undertook the conquest of Naples. This foolish expedition cost him 50,000 men; but he returned in triumph to France. Italy immediately revolted; and Charles, while forming schemes for marching once more into Naples, died of an apoplexy in 1498.

Louis XII.] With Charles VIII. the elder line of Valois was extinguished, and Louis duke of Orleans—who had offended the Lady Beaujeu while she was regent, and during the greater part of the reign of Charles had lived in retirement at his castle of Blois—was now called to the throne, by the name of Louis XII. Scarcely had Louis ascended the throne, than he resolved to make himself master of the duchy of Milan and kingdom of Naples, to which he had several pretensions. His army was vanquished by the Spanish general Gonsalvo de Cordove; and, in 1504, he was compelled to withdraw his troops from the south of Italy. Passing the Alps a second time, however, he vanquished the army of the Venetians at Agnadel. His nephew, the celebrated Gaston de Foix, also gained the battle of Ravenna, but lost his own life. Burgundy was invaded by the Swiss; and on another side, France was invaded by Henry VIII., when Louis, by negotiation, dissipated the storm which appeared to be gathering round him. He offered his second daughter to one of the Spanish princes, agreeing, at the same time, to relinquish all claims to Genoa and Milan; and his own queen being dead, he took in marriage, Mary, the sister of the English monarch. Louis died on the 1st of January 1515. He has been called the Titus of France.

Francis I.] The successor of Louis, was the next prince of the blood, Francis duke of Angoulême, Bretagne, and Valois. After having, with

some success, made an expedition into Italy in support of his pretensions to Milan, and defeated the Swiss at Marignano, his attention was called to a more noble object of ambition. Maximilian, emperor of Germany, having died in 1518, the imperial throne became vacant, and Francis flattered himself that he might be able to place himself upon it. The superior influence of Charles V. of Spain, however, disappointed the hopes of the French king, and laid the foundation of that animosity between these two powerful princes, which continued to actuate them during the remainder of their lives, and which disturbed the tranquillity, not of their own dominions only, but of the greater part of Europe. Active hostilities were commenced in 1521, and continued with varied success till 1525, when Francis repassing the Alps, undertook the siege of Pavia. Before this city, however, the army of the French monarch was completely routed by the Spaniards and Imperial troops, and Francis himself taken prisoner, after having slain with his own hand above 30 of his enemies. The captivity of Francis at Madrid was productive of the most melancholy consequences to his dominions, which were now invaded on every hand, and rent by internal factions. By the treaty of Cambray, Francis renounced his pretensions to Milan, Flanders, and Artois; but preserved his rights to Burgundy. Even this treaty did not cancel that hatred which the rival monarchs bore towards each other. War was again renewed, and the struggle continued with little interruption, till 1547, when it was terminated by the death of Francis at Rambouillet. This prince was more advantageously distinguished by the courage which he displayed in his wars with Charles, and the encouragement which he afforded to the fine arts, than by the justice of his measures or the consistency of his character. He was prodigal to excess, and of easy access to flatterers; he made merchandise of the offices of justice, and squandered the money of the State with a reckless hand; his court was a scene of intrigue and debauchery, and he was the first monarch of France who introduced his mistresses to public assemblies. It was Francis I. who unjustly condemned admiral Chabot, and sacrificed the chancellor Poyet to the resentment of the duchess d'Etampes. During his reign, however, the reformed doctrines were introduced into France, and rapidly spread themselves, notwithstanding the various attempts made to quash them by penal laws and cruel persecutions.

Henry II.] Henry, the son and successor of Francis, turned his attention to the religious reformers; and in the rigour of his persecutions exceeded the most bigoted of the clergy. A committee of the parliament of Paris was appointed to judge such as were accused of favouring the new doctrines; and when his queen was crowned at Paris, a principal part of the entertainments then given consisted in burning numbers of the heretics or Calvinists, in the Rue St Antoine, and other public places of the city. After concluding an advantageous treaty with England, Henry proceeded to show, that whatever might be his respect for the Catholic faith, he entertained very little for the Pope. He made several laws restricting those large remittances which the Catholic clergy constantly made to Rome; and corrected several abuses practised by the papal notaries. The pontiff was offended at these measures, and persuaded the emperor of Germany to declare war against France, which was continued with various success, but with little permanent advantage to either party, till 1559, when peace was restored by the treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis, shortly after concluding which, Henry lost his life in a tournament at Tournois. Henry's severities, instead of exterminating the Protestants, had the general effect of religious

persecutions, in increasing the number of the heretics; they were also the prelude to 150 years of civil war.

Francis II.] During the feeble and brief reign of Henry's son, Francis II. the intolerant duke of Guise usurped the government of France. Anne Dubourg, a parliamentary counsellor, was executed at Grève as a Calvinist; and the prince of Condè was nearly suffering the same fate under a charge of treason. Francis was married to Mary Stuart of Scotland.

Charles IX.—The Huguenots.] During the minority of Charles IX., Henry's brother, the queen dowager, Catherine de Médicis, acted as regent; but the duke of Guise, the Constable de Montmorency, and the Marshal de St André, united in a triumvirate with the view of directing the government themselves. As Geneva was in the immediate neighbourhood of France, the tenets of the celebrated Reformer, Calvin, had been speedily disseminated through that kingdom; and the progress of the Reformation had been so rapid and extensive, that many of the princes of the blood, and the flower of the French nobility now adopted its principles and stood forth in its defence. All the wisdom of the chancellor l'Hopital, could not prevail upon a worthless Court and a bigoted clergy to grant the Protestants any toleration; and hence the latter were compelled to arm in their own defence. The Protestants were headed by the prince of Condé and the great Gaspard de Coligny, admiral of France. An edict had been issued in January 1562, granting a limited freedom of worship to the Protestants; but it was broken by the bigotry and pride of the duke of Guise, whose attendants insulting a Protestant congregation assembled in a barn at Vassy, were repelled by them with stones. The duke, hastening to the spot, was wounded in the face when attempting to quell the tumult: whereupon his servants drew their swords and killed 250 of the Protestants. The mayor of Vassy, upon being reprimanded by the duke for permitting the Protestants to celebrate their worship within his jurisdiction, pleaded the royal edict in justification; but the duke, laying his hand angrily on his sword, replied: "This shall cut the bond of that edict, however strong it may be!" and the Catholics, upon hearing of this speech, committed many barbarous massacres in the different provinces of the kingdom. The principal leaders of the Reformation met at the house of Coligny to consult what was to be done for their mutual preservation. The admiral, though a zealous Protestant, was a cautious character, and felt at first at a loss how to act; but his lady, a sister of the prince of Condé, told him that he would be answerable to God for all the innocent blood which might be shed, since it was in his power, by his interest, resolution, and conduct to prevent it; and charged him, in the name of the Great God, to hesitate no longer, as he that was not with Christ was against him; Coligny, therefore, with the prince of Condé, headed the Calvinists, or Huguenots as they were nicknamed by the Catholics, and, in three successive wars, thrice compelled the Court to accommodate matters with his persecuted brethren.

Massacre of St Bartholomew.] In 1572, Charles IX. in conjunction with the queen-mother, a perfect mistress in the art of dissimulation, inveigled the heads of the Protestant party to Paris, under the pretence of witnessing the marriage between his sister Margaret of Valois, and the young protestant king of Navarre, afterwards Henry IV. The marriage was celebrated on the 17th of August; and on the 22d Coligny was wounded by a shot from a window, fired by the hand of a hired assassin.

On the 24th, the signal for the massacre of St Bartholomew was given by tolling the great bell of the palace. The direction of this diabolical business was intrusted to the duke of Guise. Our readers may expect, that a few moments should be devoted to the fate of the Great Coligny. Regular in his habits, and still weak from his wound, he had retired to rest at an early hour on the eve of St Bartholomew; but was roused from his slumbers by the noise of the assassins who had surrounded his house. A German named Besme, entered his chamber; and the admiral, suspicious of his designs, prepared to meet his fate with calmness and resignation. Incapable of resistance, he had scarce exclaimed: "Young man, respect these gray hairs, nor stain them with blood!" when Besme plunged his sword into his bosom, and, with his barbarous associates, threw the body into the court below. The young duke of Guise contemplated it in silence; but Henry, count of Angoulême, natural brother to the king, spurned it with his foot, exclaiming: "Courage, my friends; we have begun well, let us finish in the same manner!" For five days did the massacre continue in Paris, where Catholic citizens zealously seconded the executions of the soldiery, and imbrued their hands, without remorse, in the blood of their neighbours and even their nearest relations. The young king of Navarre and the prince of Condé, exempted from the general destruction, were brought before the king, and commanded to abjure their religion. The king of Navarre consented; but the prince hesitating, Charles, in a transport of rage, exclaimed, "Death, mass, or the Bastile!" and the prince, intimidated by this threat, recanted, and received absolution from the cardinal of Bourbon. During the greater part of the massacre, Charles stood at one of the windows of his palace, encouraging the assassins, by calling out, "Kill! kill!" and even repeatedly fired with his own hand upon the miserable fugitives. The same orders were sent to all the provinces of the kingdom; and they were faithfully obeyed in Lyons, Orleans, Bourges, Angers, and Toulouse; but in Provence, Dauphiné, Alençon, Auvergne, and some other parts, the Protestants were protected. It is computed, that on this fatal night, there perished in Paris alone 10,000 Protestants, and throughout France 90,000; amongst whom were 20 of the prime nobility, and 1200 gentlemen. Rejoicings were held in Rome and Spain to celebrate *the happy news*, and solemn thanks were returned *to the God of mercy* for the success of this infernal plot, under the name of the *triumph of the church militant.* Pope Gregory XIII. ordered medals to be struck, with his own name on the face, and on the reverse, an angel with a cross in the one hand, and a sword in the other, in the attitude of thrusting, with this inscription under: 'The slaughter of the Huguenots;' and in the hall of the Vatican, where the Pope gives audience to ambassadors, there are paintings, executed by the best Italian masters, representing the principal circumstances of the Parisian massacre.[2]

The effect of the massacre was directly the reverse of what the Catholics and Court had expected. "Qui n'auroit cru l'Hérésie écrasée?" says a French annalist of this period; "Mais le tems n'en étoit pas encore venu," he adds in the same breath. Calvinism, instead of being destroyed, became more formidable from despair; and a thirst for revenge was added to the desire for civil and religious liberty. The Protestants assembled in large bodies, and took refuge in the strongholds that belonged to their

[2] See, for the historical evidences regarding this infamous transaction, the *Edinburgh Review*, vol. xliv. Art. 4. in opposition to Dr Lingard's misstatements and misrepresentations.

party. At their head appeared the prince of Condé and the king of Navarre, both of whom abjured a religion which they had been compelled to profess.. The city of Rochelle, which had embraced the Reformation in 1567, was besieged by the duke of Anjou, but made such a brave defence, that the duke was obliged to retire with great loss. The town of Sancerre was defended with equal resolution for upwards of seven months; nor did the inhabitants surrender till they had obtained the promise of being allowed the free exercise of their religion. Charles died on the 13th of May, 1574.

Henry III.] Henry, duke of Anjou, the brother and successor of Charles, was advised by the emperor and the Venetians—as he passed through their territories on his way from Poland, of which he had been elected king, to mount the throne of France—to treat the Protestants with gentleness and kindness, if he wished to restore tranquillity to France. The salutary advice was lost upon this remorseless bigot; but the Protestants under Condé and Navarre, and aided by a number of German auxiliaries, soon compelled Henry to grant peace upon very favourable terms to the Protestant interest. They were again permitted the free and public exercise of their religion, except within two leagues of the court; chambers were established in all the parliaments of the kingdom, composed of an equal number of Protestants and Catholics; all attainders were reversed; and eight towns put into the hands of the Protestants. This treaty gave great disgust to the Catholics; and a formidable party was soon formed, under the name of *the Catholic League*, who openly declared, that they would oppose the royal authority in every case where that authority was at variance with the interests of the Catholic religion. A council held in Paris in 1585, demanded that the king should declare openly for the League,—revive the decrees of the council of Trent,—establish the inquisition,—extirpate heresy,—disinherit the king of Navarre and the prince to Condé,—and settle the succession upon the cardinal of Bourbon. The king now plainly saw that his power was gone, unless he could get rid of the duke of Guise, and the cardinal Lorraine. He accordingly procured their assassination at Blois in October 1588,—a deed which brought upon him the wrath of the whole Catholic party, and a sentence of excommunication from the Pope. Henry was now compelled to support the Protestants, and to enter into an alliance with the king of Navarre. But at this juncture he was assassinated at St Cloud on the 1st of August 1589, by Jacques Clement, a Dominican friar. The assassin was instantly put to death by the king's guards; but he was honoured at Paris as a saint and martyr, and the Pope expressed his highest admiration of the deed. Catherine de Medicis died in the same year with her son, with whom the 4th Capetien, and 2d Valois branch became extinct.

Henry le Grand.] Under the reign of the gallant Henry IV., king of Navarre, the Protestants obtained the edict of Nantes in their favour, which was declared to be perpetual and inviolable. The leaders of the Catholic league refused to acknowledge Henry, and chose the old Cardinal de Bourbon king, under the name of Charles X. Henry, however, by solemnly abjuring the Protestant faith, succeeded in uniting all parties under his sway. The tranquillity thus procured for his kingdom he made use of to improve the finances, and to promote the welfare of his subjects, in which design he was ably seconded by his wise and talented minister, Sully; so that during his reign—which was but too short for the happiness of France—a debt of 330 millions of francs was paid off, and 40 millions

left in the treasury. Henry divorced his wife, Margaret of Valois, and married Mary of Medicis, a false, cunning, and ambitious woman, who embittered the life of her husband. To oppose the growing power of Austria and Spain, against which the German protestants claimed his aid, he conceived a plan, which, though perhaps impracticable, did honour to his feelings: it was to establish a confederacy among the States of Europe, grounded upon such principles as might preserve an everlasting peace. To oppose the Austrian power, and support the German protestants, Henry prepared for war, and was on the point of entering the field, when the fanatic Ravaillac assassinated this high-minded prince, too soon for the happiness of France, which ever had been the first object of his wishes and all his actions. His expression: "I will not rest till every one of my peasants is wealthy enough to have a fowl to make his soup on Sunday," has been gratefully preserved among the people, who even still speak with enthusiasm of their good and gallant Henry.

Louis XIII.] The assassination of Henry IV. left his kingdom to his son, Louis XIII., during whose feeble minority and subsequent reign the Romish party gained the ascendancy; and under the corrupt administration of the cardinals Richelieu and Mazarine, in this and the following reign, the unhappy Protestants were uniformly oppressed. The political dexterity of Richelieu rendered a reign in general prosperous which the dangerous confederacies formed in the heart of the State might otherwise have rendered peculiarly unfortunate; he founded the French academy, and extended his protection to men of science and letters. Louis died in 1643, having survived his favourite minister only a few months.

Louis le Grand.] The death of Louis XIII. made way for the accession of his son, Louis XIV., as justly, perhaps, termed the Great, as his father had been surnamed the Just. Louis was only five years of age when he succeeded to the crown; and the administration was, during his minority, committed to his mother, Anne of Austria. The minority of Louis was accompanied by all the anarchy common in such cases. Anne made choice of Mazarine for her minister,—a man who has seldom been surpassed in the arts of political intrigue. As the Protestants had been of some service to the cardinal, the edict of Nantes was again confirmed in 1652; but upon the death of Mazarine, in 1661, the persecution was again begun, and the edict of Nantes violated afresh. In the meantime the duke of Orleans conquered a great part of Flanders; and D'Enghein and Turenne made themselves masters of almost all the fortified places on the Rhine, and defeated the redoubtable Spanish infantry on the plains of Lens. By the peace of Munster in 1647 France acquired the sovereignty of Alsace; and by that of the Pyrenees, concluded on the 7th of November 1659, Louis also obtained the county of Roussillon and Artois, and the hand of the Infanta, Maria Theresa of Spain. The French monarch now abandoned himself to a life of ease and pleasure, leaving the affairs of the administration entirely in the hands of J. B. Colbert, the French Mæcenas, who contributed much by his patriotic undertakings to the celebrity of Louis' reign. He made every effort to advance the commerce, the wealth, and the agriculture of the country; and advanced several really useful as well as great undertakings. In 1672 Louis put himself at the head of 150,000 men, with the view of conquering the petty States of Holland; but was completely baffled in the attempt, and driven back with the loss of 40,000 men. Louis revoked the edict of Nantes in 1685, and compelled great numbers of Protestants to take refuge in other countries. After the

loss of innumerable lives, 700,000 were fortunate enough to find asylums in the neighbouring countries of Switzerland, Germany, Holland, and England, which they enriched by their industry. The mountains of the Cevennes offered an intrenchment behind which a body of them long maintained a brave struggle, known in history as the war of the Camisards. In the opening years of the 18th century, Marlborough completely eclipsed the French military reputation, and reduced Louis to the necessity of making every effort for the defence of those territories which he had inherited. One misfortune rapidly succeeded another; and it is not easy to conceive, to what difficulties the king might have been reduced had not the Tories in Britain acquired the direction of affairs; and, in 1713, concluded the peace of Utrecht, which rescued the French monarch from the dangers which seemed to threaten him. Louis expired on the 16th of May 1715, leaving his crown to his second grandson, Louis XV., son of the duke of Burgundy. The splendour of Louis' reign was the work of the able ministers, generals, and men of letters, whom that monarch retained, around his person. Brest, Toulon, Rochefort, Lorient, Cette, Hunninguen, Port Louis, Neufbrisack, Sar-Louis, Mont-Louis, all the strong fortifications of the North and East, the canal of the South, that of Orleans, and the great hydraulic works at Marly, the Maison de St-Cyr, the Hotel des Invalides, the Observatory, the Hospital-General, and the manufactures of Gobelins, are the monuments of this monarch's magnificence. His generals Turenne, Condè, Luxembourg, Catinat, Villars, and Vendôme, were worthy compeers of the English Marlborough. Fenelon, Bourdaloue, Fléchier, Bossuet, and Massillon, adorned their sacred professions by their matchless pulpit-eloquence; Seguier, Lamoignon, Voisin, Begnon, and Daguesseau, filled the seats of justice with equal honour to themselves and advantage to their country; Lafontaine, Molière, Boileau, Labruyère, and Larochefoucaud, Corneille, and Racinè, supported the honours of letters; while Cassini, Descartes, Pascal, Fontenelle, and Condillac, successfully contributed to the advancement of the sciences. With such men as these in his kingdom, the reign of Louis could not fail to be one of the very brightest in history; had he listened less to those flatterers, who taught him to say, "l'Etat c'est moi," he would have left behind him a name which few monarchs of ancient or modern times might not envy.

Louis XV.] Louis XV. succeeded to the crown while yet a child of five years; for the government of the kingdom, therefore, a regency was appointed, consisting of a council at the head of which was the duke of Orleans. This was the arrangement which had been made by the will of the late king; but Orleans appealed to the parliament of Paris and had the influence to get himself declared regent. Orleans reformed several of the abuses which had been introduced during the reign of Louis XIV.; he restored to the parliament the right of remonstrating against the royal edicts, of which they had been deprived by the despotic Louis; and to secure the peace of France, formed an alliance with Britain and the United Provinces. The known disposition of the regent appeared to the French Protestants to afford them a favourable opportunity of recovering their lost rights. The regent himself wished to restore the Protestants to their civil rights, but was dissuaded by his council. But, speaking generally, they seem to have suffered no active persecution in any part of the reign of Louis XV. One intolerable grievance, however, they unquestionably continued to suffer in the existence of that law which did not recognise the validity of any marriage not celebrated by a Catholic priest, the conse-

quence of which was, that, in the eye of the law, the marriage of a Protestant was mere concubinage, and the offspring of it illegitimate. To his immortal honour, Louis' successor, by his edict of the 17th November, 1787, acceded to all his non-catholic subjects the full and complete rights of French citizens. The peace of Europe, which the alliance of Britain and France promised to secure, was again to be endangered by the schemes of the cardinal Alberoni, the minister of Spain, who wished to add Sicily and Sardinia to the Spanish monarchy, and to replace the family of Stuart upon the throne of Britain. In these designs the cardinal completely failed, and was dismissed from office. The daughter of the duke of Orleans was given in marriage to Don Louis, prince of the Asturias; and the Infanta of Spain was betrothed to the French king. The commercial spirit which the duke of Orleans had succeeded in introducing into France, exposed it to dangers of a different nature from those occasioned by the spirit of conquest. John Law, the celebrated Scotch projector, who had long wandered about in different countries vainly soliciting attention to his mercantile projects, at last succeeded in attracting the notice of the people of France. His proposal was to erect a bank, which, with its paper-money should discharge the national debt, and secure a considerable profit from the undertaking. The debt of France was, at this time, greater than that of any other nation of Europe; and any project which proposed to diminish the burden was eagerly listened to; the reasoning of Law was so specious, that the French ministry were convinced, and the bank was established. For some time its transactions were not incautious; but its credit being soon extended much beyond its capital, before it had subsisted a year the bank was dissolved; and such was the consequent confusion introduced, that all the powers of government became necessary to obviate the national evil. Louis XV. in 1726, took the reins of government into his own hands, and the duke of Orleans was declared minister,—an office which he did not long enjoy. He was succeeded in his office of minister by the duke of Bourbon. The king had long displayed an insuperable aversion to the Spanish princess to whom he had been betrothed; and he at length prevailed on his minister to send her home without completing the contract. This affront was so much resented by the Spaniards that a war was likely to be the consequence; but the business was terminated by a treaty. Bourbon's administration concluded with the dismissal of the Spanish princess; and cardinal Fleury, who succeeded him, commenced his ministerial career by searching for a match which might be more agreeable to his master. The princess at length fixed upon, was the daughter of Stanislaus, the Polish monarch, who had been raised to the throne by Charles XII. This princess had few personal charms, but her disposition was amiable; and though she had little of the love of Louis, he could not refuse her his esteem. Fleury was inclined, either from temper or policy, to cultivate peace. In 1733, indeed, the contest between Russia and Stanislaus obliged Louis to take an active part in behalf of his father-in-law; but such was the effect of the minister's pacific disposition, that Stanislaus received only very slender support, and was compelled to relinquish all hopes of the crown of Poland. He was permitted, indeed, to retain the name of king; and from his son-in-law received the duchies of Bar and Lorraine,—territories which at his death reverted to the crown of France. Fleury's pacific disposition also prevented France from being much affected by the war between Spain and Britain in 1737. The French minister's measures, however, could not always secure the tranquillity of Europe. The death

of Charles VI. of Austria in 1740, excited various competitors for his extensive dominions, whose several claims could not be adjusted without recourse being had to hostilities. During the general war which ensued, France found Britain to be an enemy so formidable, particularly at sea, that Louis resolved to employ the interval of tranquillity for the purpose of recruiting his fleet and army, and to seize the first favourable opportunity of again commencing hostilities. In 1755, war was again commenced; and towards the close of it, the well-known family compact was concluded between France and Spain,—a compact which, with regard to all external hostilities, rendered the two nations in reality one. But Spain was no longer capable of affording her ally any important aid, and, in 1763, a peace was concluded much to the honour and advantage of Britain, by which France resigned all pretensions to above 1,500 leagues of coast in Canada and Louisiana. France might more easily have submitted to external discomfiture, had not the country about this time been involved in the convulsions of internal disputes. A contest which commenced between the parliaments and the clergy, was, by the interference of Louis, converted into a contest between the parliaments and the king; and the parliaments, who had hitherto been successful in all their attempts against the clergy, were emboldened to still greater undertakings. Several taxes, which were to have terminated with the war, the king desired to have continued; the parliament, considering this an unwarrantable exercise of power on the king's part, refused to register the edicts for that purpose. Louis wished to redeem the debts of government at a reduced price; the parliament viewing this intention as still more iniquitous than the former, resisted the measure no less steadfastly. Government had recourse to the expedient of registering the edicts by force; but the parliaments seemed prepared to sacrifice every thing to justice, and to their design of limiting the king's absolute power. At length, the parliaments probably suspecting that the nation at large was not prepared to support them in their efforts, were constrained to submit to the king's influence. Louis had maintained the cause of the Pope against his parliaments, but he scrupled not to attack the pontiff himself so soon as his own ambition became interested. The Pope refused to recall a brief which he had issued against the duke of Parma, and Louis thought this a proper time to claim the territories of Avignon and Venaissin, which formerly had belonged to France. The claim was followed by hostilities, and the French easily took possession of the territory in question. Louis found more difficulty in reducing the island of Corsica, of which the sovereignty had been conferred on France by the Genoese, its former masters. The Corsicans resisted the transference, and during two campaigns gave full employment to a considerable number of the bravest troops of France. During the war with Britain, the commerce of France had suffered severely. Many of the most important trading companies had failed, and the public debt had been augmented till it became a burden which the nation could no longer sustain. To procure a temporary relief, the minister had recourse to an expedient which always indicates financial imbecility. By one arbitrary act, he reduced the rate of interest to one-half of what it had formerly been, and deprived those connected with what were called *tontines* from the benefit of survivorship. This afforded a temporary relief to the embarrassments of the administration, but gave a shock to the national credit from which it never recovered. It irritated the minds of those numerous individuals who held stock in the public funds, as well as of that more numerous class who by the failure of

national credit were involved in difficulties. A measure so evidently unjust, and in its consequences so fatal to national prosperity, afforded to the parliaments a fair pretext for reviving that resolution of restraining royal power, which had been partially smothered, but was far from being completely overcome. Choiseul, at that time at the head of the administration, found his situation uncommonly difficult. He proposed to appease the parliamentary malcontents by making a few seasonable concessions. These concessions were refused by the king, who construing the conduct of his minister into an attachment to the popular party, banished the duke from court. The banishment of the minister was soon followed by that of the refractory parliaments, whose places were filled by others chosen by the king himself. But the new parliaments found it impossible to obtain any share of national confidence, and the national discontent was only restrained from violent explosion by the most rigorous exertions of absolute power. Perhaps even this measure would not have preserved internal peace and the integrity of despotic power; but the death of the king terminated them at once. He had long been a slave to sensual gratifications, and had managed the government more according to the caprice of his favourite mistresses than according to the dictates of sound policy.

Louis XVI.] When Louis XVI. succeeded his grandfather, he found the nation highly discontented; compelled, indeed, by the arbitrary measures of his predecessor to conceal their resentment, but ready to seize the first favourable opportunity of displaying that spirit of resistance to royal authority, which even at this period seems to have been very prevalent. The young king commenced his reign by endeavouring to reconcile to himself the affections of his subjects. He dismissed from public offices such as during the former reign had rendered themselves peculiarly odious. In recalling the old parliaments, however, Louis succeeded not in appeasing the national chagrin; for, in restoring the former members, he limited their powers in such a way that they could no longer oppose any obstacle to the royal authority. The parliament of Paris was forbidden to consider itself as in any degree connected in a political view with the other parliaments of the kingdom, but merely as a supreme court of justice; it might indeed present remonstrances against the measures of government, but these remonstrances would be received only if expressed in the most respectful terms; and, without repeating the complaint, the members were bound within a month, to register the obnoxious edict. Louis vainly imagined that, by this measure, he had secured the political tranquillity of his reign; but the flame of faction had been long kindled, and it was not probable that it could be extinguished by a regulation which deprived the French of all that yet remained to them of semblance of liberty. The internal peace of France was, in 1775, disturbed by one of those dearths which have so often prevailed in France. The coincidence of this scarcity with several new regulations regarding the police of corn, induced the populace to attribute the whole to the government, and incited them to insurrections so formidable, that they could not be quelled till military force was resorted to, and several hundreds of the insurgents put to death. The clemency of Louis was visible in many of his regulations. The punishment of deserters from the army had formerly been death; the king changed it into labouring at the public works. The *mousquetaires*, a body of troops appointed for the purpose of guarding the royal person, were disbanded; and Louis seemed willing to do every thing for the happiness of his people, but part with that absolute authority which he con-

ceived to be his by right of inheritance. Nor was Louis less attentive to the external connections of his kingdom than to its internal welfare. The king thought he could not more effectually serve his people than by restoring his navy to some degree of force, that it might be enabled to contend with that of Britain; and the appointment of Sartine to that department of administration was a choice that indicated the monarch's penetration. About the same period, the appointment of Necker, nominally to assist Taboureau de Reaux in the management of the treasury, but in reality to take almost the sole charge of the national finances, indicated a liberality of sentiment which had rarely been exhibited by the French government. Necker was a Swiss, and a protestant. The French beheld with complacency, the dispute which now commenced between Britain and her American colonies; and though prudence prevented the government from openly espousing their cause, they secretly gave the Americans every assurance of that aid which they demanded. The British administration foresaw what was intended; an explanation of the intentions of France was demanded; and, after a few equivocations, a treaty was concluded in 1778 with America, which amounted to a declaration of war against Britain. To carry on this war, great sums were requisite; and notwithstanding the careful management of Necker, the finances became daily more inadequate to the expense of the war, while the system to which the minister adhered of supplying the public expenditure by loans rather than by direct taxation, though, for the present, it rendered the taxes more light, and consequently endeared Necker to the people, tended rapidly to involve the country in all the horrors of revolutionary contests. Necker's austerity at length offended the king, or perhaps offended some one who had influence to procure the minister's disgrace; he was dismissed from his office, and the department of finance was intrusted to Joly de Fleury. No measure could be more unpoprlar than the dismissal of Necker; and the discontent excited on this occasion, as well as by the defeat of De Grasse in the West Indies, made the court more willing to accelerate. peace. A treaty was accordingly concluded in 1783. This. however, was but a deceitful calm. Calonne, who now had the French treasury under his management, notwithstanding all his exertions was obliged to make up the supplies for each year by a new loan. Thus the nation was annually contracting a greater load of debt, and was annually becoming more unable to discharge the accumulating interest. The clergy and nobility refusing to contribute, in the same proportion as others, to the support of the State, the public mind became irritated and discontented, and finally the nation was hurried into a revolution, the most dreadfully important on record, and which involved in its consequences the greater part of the civilized world.

The Revolution.] No event, since the emigration of the tribes who overturned the Roman Occidental Empire, with the single exception of the Reformation, has produced consequences so important to the whole political system of Europe and its dependencies as the French Revolution. The equilibrium of the system, it is true, had been threatened more than once in the course of the three foregoing centuries, by various individual princes, and particular important occurrences; but never before had it been so shaken to its very foundations, or supplanted by a totally new order of things. Before the year 1789, when the French Revolution burst forth, and drew the attention of all the nations and sovereigns in Europe, none either of the larger or smaller States, which, subsequent to the middle

ages, had grown up into a fixed political form,—had entirely disappeared from the political system of Europe, though several of them had been reduced in power and extent of territory. The weaker States had generally united themselves to the various leading powers, by means of leagues and alliances, in which they found a sufficient guarantee for the continuance of their own existence. Even Poland, distracted as it was by parties, and superannuated in constitution, had, by the first partition of 1772, been merely reduced in its territorial circumference, without being wholly expunged from the catalogue of European states. And on behalf of European Turkey, a power, which, for a space of 300 years, had retained its Asiatic constitution, and had adopted but a small portion of those principles which were understood in Europe to regulate the intercourse of nations, an attempt had been made to secure by solemn treaties its stability and weight in the balance of power. This system of equilibrium, however, so long preserved, was violently shaken by the eruption of the French Revolution, and in the end annihilated by the new relation which France, in consequence of the triumphs of her arms assumed towards the other European states. And not merely so, but the influence of the political principles which proceeded from France, and the powerful shocks which her successive victories inflicted, threatened almost all the States of Europe with a revolution like her own; in several European kingdoms, such a change of constitution and dynasty actually ensued, and several more or less important States in the very centre of the European system, were utterly annihilated.

Though the new continental system which was thus established, was soon deprived of its basis by the destruction of the political preponderance of France, yet the effects of the revolution remained in the complete transformation which had taken place on the interior constitution of various States. For as at the era of the Reformation, three centuries before, the system of the clerical hierarchy had been powerfully shaken, and in the States which embraced the reformed religion completely overthrown by the establishment of freedom of conscience; so the overthrow of the feudal system in France, where that system had received its original permanent form, in 486, became the primary cause of the great political transformation, which introduced into the constitution of the European States some semblance of civil and political liberty in the establishment of representative bodies, which, at the breaking out of the French Revolution, existed only in England and North America. Amidst the storms of the Revolution, was nursed the political regeneration of Europe, as once the ecclesiastical regeneration of the same quarter of the world had been born amid the tempest of religious contentions. For within the last thirty years, the most important principles of natural and political right, viz. that the State rests upon a compact between the rulers and the ruled; that all citizens of a free State are equal in the eyes of the law; that without the freedom of the press no civil liberty can be supposed to exist; that all public burdens should be borne by all the subjects of the State; and that the highest authorities of the State are responsible for their administration—have been recognized as forming the basis of the social system, and have infused a new life into the political existence of half Europe. This change which had long been demanded by the voice of public opinion, and which was greatly accelerated by the financial distresses in which most of the old States were involved, began its march with the French Revolution, but it still expects its final adjustment,—in the interior condition of the different

States, by the developement of a representative constitution adapted to the spirit and manners of the times,—and in their external relations, by the establishment of a new balance of power in Europe.

The first European State after Poland, in which it became evident that its constitution and administration had become superannuated, and stood in need of renovation, was the kingdom of France. Louis, it is true, was sincerely desirous of promoting the welfare of his people, but the personal good qualities of the monarch were found totally insufficient to allay the fermentation which broke out during his reign. Nor does it appear that he had rightly apprehended the first symptoms of its approach, which showed themselves immediately after the peace of Paris in 1783, in which the independence of America was secured. Not only was France oppressed by an enormous debt of 5000 millions of francs, in consequence of which the yearly increase of taxation almost entirely exhausted the resources of the lower and middle ranks of the nation, while, at the same time, the deficit in the finances every year increased; but there had been effected, during the twenty years that preceded, a mighty change in the mode of thinking and the public opinion of the French, partly by the writings of some very popular authors such as Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot, &c. and partly by the new representative constitution of North America, from which country many distinguished French officers, having fought in the cause of its independence, had returned to their native land with a completely new set of political ideas. In consequence of the financial distresses of the kingdom, the minister Calonne advised the king to assemble the Notables—a select committee of the clerical and secular nobility—in a sort of national diet. They sat from the 22d February to the 25th of May 1787, but showed no disposition during this period to recognise the debts of the crown as those of the nation. On the other hand, they deliberated whether the annual deficit in the finances was to be covered by a sale of the royal demesnes, by adopting a system of stricter economy, or by the imposition of new taxes. The new minister Count Brienne urged the last method, but he was opposed by the parliament of Paris, in consequence of which he abolished the parliament, and attempted on the 8th of May 1788, to supply the place by a *Cour plenaire* composed of princes, peers, magistrates, and military officers. This proceeding, however, excited universal discontent against Brienne, who was succeeded on the 25th of August by Necker, a minister who, in consequence of his former administration of the financial department, had the public opinion strongly in his favour. On the 1st of May 1789, he convoked an assembly of the estates of the kingdom, composed of 300 deputies from the nobility, 300 from the clergy, and 600 from the commons (*Tiers-etat*). Among the last, there were many distinguished men who presently united in the scheme of giving a new form to the constitution. The diet was opened by the king in person, and was occupied for a considerable period in disputes about the mode of conducting their discussions. The determination of the nobility to deliberate in one chamber with the *Tiers-etat*, brought the latter to the resolution of declaring itself the national assembly, which it did on the 17th of June, and was presently joined by a majority of the clergy and a minority of the nobles. The first national assembly remained assembled from the 17th of June 1789, to the 30th of September 1791, having, in October 1789, after the destruction of the Bastile by a popular movement of the Parisians, the sudden dismissal of Necker from office, and the establishment of a camp of 50,000 men in the vicinity of the capital, transferred its sittings from

Versailles to Paris. This assembly made a public declaration of the rights of man, and placed itself at the head of the new constitution. It abolished all the exclusive privileges of the nobility and clergy, feudal tenures, tithes, game, fishing, and corporation-laws, together with the whole system of feudalism. On the 20th of September, the supreme legislative power was declared to be vested in the national representatives, to the king was granted a *votum suspensivum* or *veto*, and the kingdom was divided into 83 departments. On the 9th of June 1790, after the royal demesnes as well as the estates of the clergy and convents had been declared national property, the civil list of the king was fixed at 25 millions of francs, and a large currency of assignats was issued to the nation.

France as a Republic.] The new national convention intimated its spirit and character, on the 21st of September 1792, by pronouncing France a single and indivisible republic,—abolishing royalty for ever,—and introducing a new system of chronology, commencing with that day, which continued in use till the 1st of January 1806. The convention even declared on the 13th of December 1792, during a moment of high excitement, after that Dumouriez and Bournonville had defeated the Austrians under the duke Albert of Saxon-Teschen and Clairfait in the battle of Gemappes on the 6th of November, that they would not rest until the whole of Europe had been revolutionized and purged like France from the accumulated corruptions of past ages. The tree of liberty was now planted in Belgium, Liege, Aix-la-Chapelle, Mentz, Savoy, and Nice, which two latter provinces were incorporated with the republic, as two new departments, on the king of Sardinia concluding an alliance with Austria. On the 23rd of November 1792, the German rulers resolved to triple the army of the empire, as it was called; and on the 21st of January 1793, Louis XVI. was led to the guillotine, after a mock trial before the national convention, in which extreme intemperance was displayed on the part of his accusers. A destructive civil war in the Vendée followed this regicidial act; but the convention nevertheless did not hesitate to declare war against England, the stadtholder of the Netherlands, and Spain, in the months of February and March 1793; upon which Portugal, Russia, the Pope, Naples and Tuscany, joined the alliance against France. Sweden, Denmark, Switzerland, and the Porte, were the only powers of Europe which remained neutral in this general war. The convention itself was distracted by the violence of two parties each pursuing opposite ends, until, on the 2nd of June 1793, the Terrorists, or faction of the Mountain, prevailed over the Moderates, or the Girondists, and through the committee of public safety, consisting of 13 members, gave a new and second constitution to their country on the 24th of June 1793. In the beginning of the year 1793, fortune had deserted the arms of the republic. Dumouriez, on the 18th of March, lost the battle of Nerwinden against the Austrians, and on the 22nd of the same month, that of Lewen; and the French were compelled to quit Belgium which they had so shortly before incorporated with their own new-born republic. The committee of public safety, now ordered a levy en masse, and formed the youth of France into thirteen armies. Houchard defeated the Dutch and Hanoverians; Jourdan, the Austrians under the prince of Coburg; Hoche and Pichegru, the Prussians and the German forces or army of the empire. Meanwhile the English reduced the French colonies in the East and West Indies; and Sydney Smith burned the French fleet in the port of Toulon, consisting of 11 men-of-war. Robespierre had brought the system of terror to its height, but upon

Tallien's accusation, fell himself under that guillotine to which he had sent so many thousands of his innocent fellow-citizens, on the 28th of July 1794. St Just, Barrère, Billaud-Varennes, Joseph Lebon, Collot d'Herbois, are names second only in infamy to the atrocious Robespierre. The fortune of war again turned against the republicans in Belgium, where they were defeated by the prince of Coburg, in the two successive battles of Cateau-Cambresis fought on the 17th, and Landrecy on the 26th of April 1794. On the other hand the French were victorious under Pichegru at Tournay on the 22nd of May, and under Jourdan at Fleuris on the 26th of June. Jourdan drove the Austrians back over the Rhine, and Pichegru in the early part of the following winter crossed the frozen rivers of the Netherlands, and gave existence to the Batavian republic, which resigned a portion of its territory, extending along the Maese from Maestricht to Venloo, to France, and concluded an alliance with that republic on the 16th of May 1795. The republican armies of the eastern and western Pyrenees were meanwhile successful against the Spaniards, and both had already advanced upon the Spanish territory, when that kingdom, on the 22nd of July 1795, concluded the peace of Basle with France, to which it yielded its possessions in St Domingo. Prussia had, on the 5th of April 1795, withdrawn from the coalition, leaving the countries which it possessed beyond the Rhine in the hands of France. On the 5th of May following, France and Prussia united in forming a line of demarcation along the north of Germany, and the elector of Hesse-Cassel also concluded a separate treaty of peace with France on the 8th of August.

France under a Directory.] By the adoption of its third constitution, on the 23rd of October 1795, France secured for itself greater stability in its external and internal affairs. According to this constitution, the legislative power was vested in two councils; the council of the Five Hundred with whom all laws originated, and the council of the Ancients, consisting of 250 members, which adopted or rejected the laws sent up to them from the other council. The executive power was vested in the hands of five directors, one of whom was elected annually. After that Prussia, Spain, Tuscany, and the Elector of Hesse-Cassel had concluded a treaty with France; Austria, England, and Russia, united in a triple alliance, on the 28th of September 1795, with the design of vigorously prosecuting the war. The emigrants also who had assembled in the Breisgau under the prince of Conde, proclaimed the count of Provence (Louis XVIII.) king. But the French armies, on the renewal of the campaign, entered Germany and Italy as victors; and the civil war in the Vendée was finally put down by Hoche in 1796. In the spring of 1796, Buonaparte, then a young man of only 26 years, entered Italy with an army totally destitute of warlike equipments. He marched from Genoa; defeated the Austrians and Piedmontese in the battles of Montenotte fought on the 12th of April 1796, and of Milesimo on the 14th of the same month; compelled the king of Sardinia to conclude a treaty of peace in which Savoy and Nice were given up to France; on the 8th of May crossed the Po; on the succeeding day forced Parma to consent to an armistice; on the 10th defeated General Beaulieu at Lodi; on the 20th proclaimed the freedom of the Lombardese; in the month of June compelled Modena, Naples, and the Pope to conclude an armistice; defeated General Wurmser—who had succeeded Beaulieu in command—on the 3rd of August at Lonado, and on the 5th of that month at Castiglione, forcing him to retire into the fortress of Mantua; advanced against the Tyrol; defeated

Alvinzi at Arcole on the 15th of November, and at Rivoli on the 14th of January 1797; concluded the peace of Tolentino, in which the Pope yielded Avignon to France, and Bologna Ferrara and Romagna to the Cisalpine republic, on the 19th of February; defeated the archduke Charles at Lisonzo; and signed preliminaries of peace with Austria at Léoben on the 16th of April 1797, which formed the basis of the peace of Campo Formio, concluded on the 17th of October following.

During these victories in Italy, Jourdan penetrated from Dusseldorf into the Upper Palatinate, and Moreau from Kehl to Munich, after having concluded a peace with Baden and Wirtemberg, in August 1796. But the archduke Charles crossed over to the left bank of the Danube on the 17th of August, and defeated Jourdan at Neumark on the 22d, at Amberg on the 24th, at Wurtzburg on the 3d of September, at Gressen on the 16th, and at Altenkirchen on the 20th of September; by which victories he compelled Moreau likewise to retire from Bavaria,—a retreat which he accomplished with consummate prudence and skill, in the face of the surrounding Austrians.

After the overthrow of the constitution of the Venetian republic on the 22d of May 1797, occasioned by a rising of the Venetians against the French troops stationed in their territory, Austria, in the peace of Campo Formio, gave up the whole of Belgium to France, and recognised the Cisalpine republic, to which she surrendered Milan and Mantua; while, on the other hand, she received from the Venetian States, Venice, Istria, Dalmatia, and the neighbouring districts extending to the Adige. The remainder of the Venetian dominions, and the State of the duke of Modena—who was to be indemnified by Austria with the Breisgau—were annexed to the Cisalpine republic; and the seven islands belonging to Venice were ceded to France.

In the period between the peace of Campo Formio and the renewal of the war, a directoral government was formed in Batavia, on the 22d of January 1799, under French influence. The ancient constitutions of Switzerland were exchanged after bloody struggles for the new constitution of the Helvetian republic in March 1798; and Berthier, on the 10th of February 1798, founded a republic with a consular constitution at Rome, and led Pope Pius VI. prisoner to France, where he died in 1799. Buonaparte embarked on the 22d of May 1798 for Egypt; and after having subdued the Mamelukes, penetrated even into Syria, but was compelled to abandon the siege of Acre, and to retrace his steps into Egypt. At Aboukir he defeated the Turkish forces, and leaving Kleber in the command of the army, returned to Europe in September 1799, at the moment that France had exhausted herself in the new war against Austria and Russia, with whom the Porte had coalesced.

This war was begun in November 1798 by the king of Naples, Ferdinand IV., who had marched into Rome with the design of re-establishing the dominion of the Pope, whereupon the French instantly proclaimed war against Naples, and likewise against Sardinia, under the pretext of these powers having secret correspondence with the enemies of France. General Joubert, on the 9th of December 1798, forced the king of Sardinia to relinquish Piedmont; and Championnet in the same month defeated the Neapolitans under Mack, and, on the 25th of January 1799, proclaimed Naples the Parthenopeian republic. These successes in Italy, where the French had also erected Tuscany into a republic, were lost in the beginning of the war with Russia and Austria in March 1799, when the archduke Charles defeated the French under Jourdan at Ostrach in Suabia on the

21st of March, and at Stockach on the 26th; whilst Kray defeated Scherer at Pastrengo in Italy on the 26th of March, at Verona on the 30th, and at Margnano on the 5th of April; after which Suwarrow, at the head of the Russians and Austrians, engaged the French at Cassano on the 27th of April. Moreau succeeded Scherer in the command of the French forces; but Macdonald—who after Championnet's arrest commanded the French at Naples—retreated, after Scherer's defeat, from Naples into Upper Italy. He fought with great valour from the 12th to the 18th of June at Piacenza against the Russians and Austrians, who opposed his march to Mantua, but was forced to join Moreau with the remains of his army. The Russian, Austrian, and French armies again measured their strength in the battle of Novi, on the 15th of August, which was begun by Joubert, and continued by Moreau after the former had received a mortal wound. After this engagement, in which the French were defeated, both armies retreated into strong positions; and the Russian and Austrian forces separated, the first intending to penetrate into Switzerland, to unite with another Russian army under Korsakow. Massena defeated the united forces of Korsakow and the Austrians under Hotze, at Zurich on the 25th and 26th of September, by which victory he maintained himself upon the boundaries of Germany and Switzerland, and prevented the archduke Charles from crossing the Rhine; and Brune, on the 9th of September and 6th October, defeated the Russians and English troops who had landed in the Netherlands. The greatest disunion, meanwhile, prevailed in Paris between the directory and the legislatve body.

France under the Consulate.] Buonaparte arrived in Paris on the 15th of October 1799. In concert with the director Sieyes, he abolished the third French constitution, by occupying the hall of the legislative body with troops, on the 9th of November 1799, or the 18th of Brumaire, according to the French republican almanack. Sieyes himself and Roger Ducos were named consuls *ad interim*, till the new constitution thus forced upon France was proclaimed on the 13th of December, and General Buonaparte nominated first consul, Cambacérès and Lebrun being appointed second and third consuls. The executive power was vested in the three consuls. A senate of 80 members, who were to hold their office for life, a tribunal of 100 members (abolished in 1807), and a legislative assembly of 300 members, composed the other branches of the government. The strength and energy of the new government made itself visible in the immediate union of the best leaders of all parties, and the return of many thousand emigrants in the station of agriculturists and tradesmen. The battles of Marengo fought on the 14th of June 1800, in which Buonaparte defeated Melas, and that of Hohenlinden, in which Moreau defeated the archduke John on the 3d of December, was followed by the conclusion of a treaty with Austria, in its own name and that of the German empire, but without the concurrence of England, on the 9th of February 1801. In this peace—which was signed by Joseph Buonaparte and Cobentzel—the course of the Rhine was fixed as the limit between France and Germany. Those German princes who lost their territories beyond the Rhine by this new arrangement were to be indemnified by additional possessions on the right banks of that river. In Italy the course of the Adige was fixed as the boundary between Austria and the Cisalpine republic, and the former power gave the Breisgau and Ortenau to the duke of Modena. The territories of the grand duke of Tuscany were erected into the kingdom of Etruria, which was given to the hereditary prince of

Parma, according to a treaty between France and Spain: the grand duke being to be indemnified in Germany for the loss of his territories.

After this peace, Portugal also concluded a treaty with France on the 29th of September 1801; and Russia and Turkey on the 8th and 9th ot October concluded a treaty upon the *statu quo*. Great Britain retired in the peace of Amiens, on the 27th of March 1802, from the ten years' struggle: retaining Ceylon which she had taken from the Dutch, and Trinidad which she had taken from Spain, but engaging to restore all the other captured colonies, to re-establish the order of the knights of St John at Malta, and to guarantee all the possessions of the Porte. France, on the other hand, guaranteed the existence of the kingdoms of Naples and Portugal.

The States-Consultat of the Cisalpine republic, which had assumed at Naples, on the 26th of January 1802, the name of the Italian republic, made choice of Buonaparte for its president; and on the 3d of August 1802, the French also nominated him consul for life, after that he had founded the order of the Legion of Honour in May 1802, and concluded with the new-elected Pope Pius VII., on the 15th of July 1801, a concordat for the Gallican church, which was published in April 1802. The business of the idemnification in Germany was concluded and accomplished in 1802 and 1803 at Ratisbon by France and Russia, according to a secret convention concluded between these two powers on the 10th of October 1801. An armament despatched under Leclerc for the reduction of Domingo was baffled; and neither Napoleon nor the Bourbons could succeed in again reducing this island, which gained its political independence after a bloody struggle.

A conspiracy against the life of the first consul by Georges and Pichegru, was adopted by some of Buonaparte's creatures as a pretext for introducing a proposal to the senate to change the consular government into an hereditary one.

France as an Empire.] The first consul having given his assent to the proposal of the senate on the 5th April 1804, the Senatus-Consultus by decree of the 18th May, placed Napoleon Buonaparte, as hereditary emperor, at the head of France; and on the 2d of December Pope Pius VII. solemnly anointed the new monarch, who himself placed the imperial crown on his own head. The Italian republic of course followed the example of France, and on the 15th of March 1805 having named their president king of Italy, Napoleon, on the 26th of May, with his own hands placed the new crown of the Lombardian kings upon his own head, and was anointed by the archbishop of Milan. During his presence in Italy, the senate of the Ligurian republic demanded and obtained the incorporation of the Genoese State with the French empire, on the 4th of June, and the small Republic of Lucca was transformed in the same year into an hereditary principality for the princess Eliza, sister of the rising Corsican.

These transactions excited the suspicions of Great Britain, and a new and third coalition was concluded at Petersburg on the 11th of April by the English ambassador Lord Gower, prince Czartorinsky, and the chamberlain Novosiltzoff. Austria joined this coalition on the 9th of August; and Sweden likewise took part in it by the treaties of subsidy which she concluded with England.

Austria seemed to meditate the principal blow in Italy where the archduke Charles was opposed to marshal Massena; at the same time 25,000 French marched under St Cyr from Naples into Upper Italy, after that a treaty of neutrality had been concluded between France and Naples, on

the 21st of September, 1805. The Austrian army in Germany was commanded by the archduke Ferdinand and General Mack. This army penetrated into Bavaria in September 1805, and demanded that the elector should either unite his army with the Austrian forces or disband it. Upon this the elector assembled his troops in the Upper Palatinate, whence they marched into Franconia, while he himself proceeded to Wirtemberg, where he joined Napoleon. The same course was adopted by Wirtemberg and Baden.

Napoleon now left the camp of Boulogne, where he had been employed with idle preparations for invading England, and on the 2d of October arrived at Ludwigsburg in Wirtemberg. The next day he issued a declaration of war. The corps of Bernadotte and the Bavarians having marched towards the Danube, through the neutral province of Anspach, belonging to Prussia, the latter power, which had assembled its armies in the neighbourhood of the Russian frontier, issued a note on the 14th of October, renouncing its obligations to France; and by the treaty of Potsdam, concluded on the 3d of November, during the stay of the emperor Alexander at Berlin, promised to take part in the coalition against France upon certain conditions. The Prussian armies in conjunction with the Saxon and Hessian forces, took up a hostile position extending between the frontiers of Silesia and the Danube. But the Austrian armies in Suabia had been rapidly turned and defeated by the French in a series of operations extending from the 6th to the 13th of October; upon which Mack, in the infamous capitulation of Ulm, dated the 17th of October, surrendered with 23,000 men, but the archduke Ferdinand by constant fighting reached Bohemia. The French now penetrated through Bavaria and Austria into Moravia; and after having obtained possession in November of the defiles of the Tyrol, and driven back several Russian corps in a series of skirmishes at Limbach, Amstetten, and Krems, they occupied Vienna on the 13th of November, and afterwards took possession of Presburg. The battle of Austerlitz, fought on the 22d of December 1805, decided this war which had lasted only two months; and the archduke Charles having received information of the reverses in Suabia, retired from Italy into the German provinces, after having fought a dreadful battle upon the Adige, which lasted three days.

The battle of Austerlitz was followed on the 4th of December by an interview between Napoleon and Francis II., and an armistice between both powers was concluded on the 6th. By the treaty of peace of Presburg, signed by Talleyrand, the prince John of Lichtenstein, and count Stadion, on the 26th of the same month, Austria yielded its Venetian possessions to the kingdom of Italy; the Tyrol and several German countries to Bavaria; Breisgau to Baden, and other Suabian possessions to Wirtemberg; she also recognised the electors of Bavaria and Wirtemberg as kings, and the elector of Baden as sovereign elector: and obtained on the other hand the greater part of the bishopric of Saltzburg, now erected into an electorate for the grand duke of Tuscany, the bishop being indemnified by the principality of Wurtzburg taken from Bavaria, with the title of elector and all the rights of sovereignty, and the hereditary dignity of a grandmaster of the Teutonic order. But during the victorious course of the armies of France by land, she suffered a sensible loss by sea: the united fleets of France and Spain, under Villeneuve and Gravina, being wholly defeated off Cape Trafalgar on the 21st of October, by Admiral Nelson, who lost his life in the engagement.

On the 15th of December the emperor concluded a treaty with Prussia at Vienna, in which the alliance between both these powers was renewed, and a reciprocal guarantee of the ancient and newly acquired States exchanged. France pretended to give Hanover to Prussia; and on the other hand Prussia yielded to France, Anspach, Cleve, and Neufchatel. Prussia was now obliged to act offensively against England, as well by taking possession of Hanover as by excluding English vessels from the rivers which flow into the North Sea. Napoleon gave the province of Anspach to the king of Bavaria, who was directed to resign the dukedom of Berg, which being united with the Prussian part of Cleve, was given to Murat, the brother-in-law of Napoleon, who, on the 13th of March, was named duke of Cleve and Berg. Neufchatel was also given to Marshal Berthier, with the title of Prince. Joseph, the elder brother of Napoleon, was by an imperial decree of the 13th March 1806 named king of Naples and Sicily, which had been conquered by marshal Massena, who marched with an army from Upper Italy into Naples, on account of a pretended breach of neutrality occasioned by the landing of the English and Russians. But Ferdinand IV. took refuge in Sicily with his family; and that island being protected by the English fleet, formed merely a nominal appendage to the crown of Joseph Buonaparte. With the principality of Lucca given to his sister Eliza, the emperor now united Massa-Carrara and Carfagnana, which he detached from the kingdom of Italy. He also named prince Eugene Beauharnois, son of the empress Josephine by her first husband, viceroy of Italy, and married him to the daughter of the king of Bavaria; the minister Talleyrand received the nominal title of prince of Benevento; Bernadotte was proclaimed prince of Ponte Corvo; and Louis, the second brother of the emperor, was proclaimed hereditary and constitutional king of Holland. With the same disregard of political justice, the constitution of the German empire, which had lasted for above 1000 years, was overthrown on the 12th of July 1806, to make way for the Rhenish Confederation, of which the emperor Napoleon was named protector.

War with Prussia.] The misunderstandings which had arisen between France and Russia, especially after the occupation of Cattaro by the Russians, were only suspended for a moment by the treaty concluded on the 20th of July 1806, by the French general Clarke, and the Russian minister Oubril. The emperor Alexander refused to ratify this peace after the formation of the Rhenish Confederation; and the same reason instigated England to break off the pending negotiations of peace with France. Prussia assembled an army in August 1806, which entered Thuringia, and after some negotiations at Dresden, was joined by 22,000 Saxons; while at the same moment Lord Morpeth proceeded to the Prussian head-quarters, and after some negotiations, on the 1st of October the Prussian ultimatum was delivered to France. This document demanded the withdrawment of the whole French troops from Germany, and announced the intended formation of a northern league which was designed to comprehend all those countries which were not already included in the Rhenish league.

These propositions having been contemptuously rejected, the struggle began with the advance of the French troops upon the Prussian left wing. The grand duke of Berg forced the passage of the Saal at Saltzburg on the 8th of October, and on the 9th the Prussians and Saxons were defeated at Schleiz. On the 10th the French left wing defeated the united corps of Prussians and Saxons at Saalfeld, where prince Louis of Prussia was killed; and on the 14th the battles of Jena and Auerstadt decided the

fate of the countries between the Rhine and the Elbe, upon which Napoleon declared Saxony a neutral province, and marched instantly upon Berlin, whilst the grand duke of Berg and marshal Soult pursued the divisions of the Prussian army through Thuringia. The prince of Ponte Corvo defeated the Prussian reserve under the prince Eugene of Wirtemberg at Halle, on the 17th of October 1806, and marshal Ney laid siege to Magdeburg. On the 22d of October Napoleon arrived in Wittenberg, and on the 27th entered Berlin. The fortresses of Spandau, Custrin, Stettin, Magdeburg, Glogau, and others, instantly surrendered; indeed, with the exception of Colberg, commanded by Gneisenau, and Graudenz, all the Prussian fortresses ultimately capitulated; and the prince of Hohenlohe, at the head of 16,000 Prussians, laid down his arms at Prenzlow on the 28th of October. Blucher alone made some resistance in passing through the neutral country of Mecklenburg, and retired to Lubeck, where he surrendered on the 7th of November, after having fought the corps of Bernadotte, Soult, and the grand duke of Berg.

Before the second series of operations connected with this important struggle commenced in Southern Prussia, Napoleon had taken possession of the lands of the elector of Hessè, the duke of Brunswick, the prince of Fulda, the Hanseatic towns, and all the Prussian provinces between the Rhine and the Elbe. A proclamation, signed by Dombrowski and Wybicki, two chiefs of ancient Polish families, on the 3d of November, called upon the inhabitants of that part of Poland which had fallen to the lot of Prussia in the course of the three partitions, to rise for the recovery of their ancient independence, and a new Polish army quickly joined the French who entered Warsaw on the 2d of November. Before the struggle began with the Russians upon the right banks of the Vistula, the elector of Saxony, by the peace of Posen, on the 11th December 1806, joined the confederation of the Rhine with the royal title. The five dukes of Saxony also joined the Rhenish confederation by the treaty of Posen on the 15th of the same month.

Beyond the Vistula, the war between France and Russia was opened on the night of the 23d–24th December 1806, by the fight of Czarnowo, in which the French carried the Russian redoubts upon the left banks of the Ukra. On the succeeding morning Davoust drove field-marshal Kamenskji out of his position near Nasielsk; and on the day following the marshal renounced the command-in-chief, in which he was succeeded by Benningsen. After an obstinate struggle at Pultusk against the latter, and at Golymin against Buxhouden, the Russians retreated to Ostrolenka, and Benningsen suddenly transported the theatre of war into Eastern Prussia, where the Russians, on the 23d of January 1807, attacked the advanced posts of the prince of Ponte Corvo, who engaged them on the 25th at Mohrungen, and by his manœuvres covered the left flank of the French army until a junction was formed. After continual fighting from the 1st to the 7th of February 1807, the battle of Eylau took place on the 8th. Both parties claimed the victory; but it had no decisive influence on the result of the war.

During a pause of several months, in which both armies recruited themselves, Dantzic was besieged and bombarded by Lefevre, and General Kalkreuth was compelled to capitulate on the 24th of May, after marshal Lannes had defeated a body of Russians who had landed at Weichselmunde with the view of raising the siege. At last, after a series of skirmishes between the different divisions of the hostile armies, the decisive

victory of the French over the Russians at Friedland, on the 14th of June 1807, led to the peace of Tilsit, which was concluded on the 8th of July, between France and Russia by Talleyrand, prince Kurakin, and Labanof-Rostrow, and on the 9th of July, between France and Prussia by Talleyrand and count Kalkreuth, after an interview between the three monarchs upon the Niemen, and subsequently in Tilsit. In this peace Prussia lost the principality of East Friesland, the county of Mark, the principality of Minden, and the county of Ravensberg; the principalities of Hildesheim, Paderborn, and Munster; the counties of Tecklenburg and Lingen; the electorate of Hanover, with the principality of Osnabruck; the greatest part of ancient Mark, and the dukedom of Magdeburg; the principalities of Halberstadt, Eichsfeld, and Erfurt; the county of Mansfeld; the anciently free towns of Nordhausen, Muhlhausen, and Goslar; the ancient abbacies of Quedlinburg, Essen, Elten, and Weiden; the principality of Bayreuth, the circle of Kottbuss, the whole of Southern Prussia, the whole of new Eastern Prussia, and a considerable part of Western Prussia, with the Netz district including Dantzic,—territories containing upwards of one half of the former population of Prussia.

From these districts and other countries conquered by France, were formed two new States: viz. the kingdom of Westphalia, and the dukedom of Warsaw. From new Eastern Prussia, the ancient department and district of Bialystock, containing 2150 British square miles, and a population of about 200,000 souls, was annexed to Russia; and on the other hand Russia yielded the little principality of Jever to the kingdom of Holland. In the peace of Tilsit, Jerome, Napoleon's youngest brother, was acknowledged king of Westphalia, and the king of Saxony was flattered with the title of duke of Warsaw. Upon the intercession of Russia, the dukes of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Oldenburg, and Coburg, were reinstated; and France and Russia exchanged reciprocal guarantees of their possessions, and of those of the other powers included in this peace.

In the inferior results of this great struggle, may be enumerated the conquest of most of the Silesian fortresses by the Bavarians and Wirtenbergers, between December 1806 and June 1807, under Jerome's generalship; the renewed war of France with Sweden in Pomerania, which was finished by the taking of Stralsund on the 20th of August, and of the island of Rugen on the 25th of September 1807, by the French; and the war of Russia and England against the Porte—which had renewed alliance with France—commencing in the autumn of 1806.

After the peace of Tilsit, Napoleon returned by Dresden—where he signed, on the 22d of July, the constitution of the dukedom of Warsaw—to Paris. The constitution of the kingdom of Westphalia was signed by Napoleon at Fountainbleau on the 15th November 1807. The other northern German princes had in April 1807 joined the Rhenish confederation at Warsaw, with the exception of the two dukes of Mecklenburg, and the duke of Oldenburg, who did not join the confederation till the following year.

Spanish War.] The treaties of Presburg and Tilsit secured the preponderance of Napoleon in Germany and Italy; in the dukedom of Warsaw he had formed an immediate rampart against Russia, and an intermediate State between Austria and Prussia, entirely under his own control. He now wished to bring the Pyrenean peninsula likewise under the influence of his continental system, which had for its grand object the

exclusion of English influence and commerce from the European continent until an advantageous maritime peace could be concluded with that power. A French army in concert with a Spanish one marched against Portugal; whose tripartition had been concerted between France and Spain on the 27th of October 1807; the northern part being to be given to the house of Parma; the southern part to the Prince of Peace, Godoi; and the middle on the conclusion of peace, to the house of Braganza. Tuscany was to be given to France, and the king of Spain to be declared protector of the three States erected out of Portugal; the Spanish monarch was also to assume, after the maritime peace should be concluded, the title of emperor of both Americas.

In conformity to this treaty, Tuscany was given up to Napoleon in December 1807, and afterwards incorporated with France; and marshal Junot, duke of Braganza, entered Lisbon on the 30th of November, after the royal family had embarked with their treasures and a few of the principal nobility in a British fleet for the Brazils. But in 1808 the Spanish grandees tired of the government of the Prince of Peace, formed a plot to raise Ferdinand VII. to the throne, and free their country from foreign influence. The palace of the Prince of Peace was assailed by the mob in the night of the 17–18th March; and on the 19th, king Charles IV. resigned the throne in favour of his son. But Napoleon refused to acknowledge Ferdinand VII., and Charles IV. resumed the regal dignity; and on the 5th of May again resigned all the rights of his house in Spain and India into the hands of Napoleon. Ferdinand VII. was constrained to acquiesce in this renunciation on the 10th, and both father and son now became pensioners of the French conqueror, who nominated his brother Joseph, then king of Naples, king of Spain and India. The people now rose *en masse* to vindicate their injured rights, and that struggle commenced in which the patriotic Spaniards were so warmly and successfully supported by the British troops under Lord Wellington.

War with Austria.] The breaking out of the national war in Spain, afforded Austria a convenient opportunity for re-establishing her former influence in Germany and Italy. In 1809, therefore, Austria declared war against France, and advanced her armies into Bavaria, Italy, and the dukedom of Warsaw. In the preceding autumn, Napoleon and Alexander of Russia had an interview at Erfurth, and the consequence of their alliance was, that a Russian auxiliary army now advanced against Austria into Gallicia. Napoleon, with the aid of the Bavarians and Wirtenbergers defeated the Austrians at Abensberg on the 20th, at Eckmuhl on the 22d, and at Ratisbonne on the 23d of April; and although he suffered considerable loss in the battle of Aspern, fought on the 22d of May, the great battle of Wagram fought on the 5th and 6th of July, led to the peace of Vienna, which was signed on the 14th of October, and in which Austria was obliged to resign the sovereignty of three millions of subjects.

The secondary movements connected with this struggle were the war in Italy, in which the archduke John was opposed to the viceroy Eugene, who, after the events upon the Danube, pursued the archduke, who retreated into Hungary, where he engaged him on the 14th of June at Raab; the rebellion in Tyrol accompanied with many bloody and barbarous scenes, but which did not stop the march of the principal events in this war; the entrance of the Austrians into the dukedom of Warsaw, from which they were speedily dislodged by prince Poniatowsky, who spread his victorious arms in concert with the Russians over Gallicia; and the ad-

vancement of some light troops into the kingdom of Saxony. A British armament in August 1809, took and destroyed Flushing; but was obliged to evacuate that place in December.

By the peace of Vienna, concluded by count Champagny, and prince John of Liechtenstein, Austria resigned Saltzburg, Berchtolsgaden, and the Innviertel and Hausruckviertel, which were given to Bavaria; the whole of Western Gallicia, and a part of Eastern Gallicia, with the town of Cracow, which were united to the dukedom of Warsaw: the circle of Villach in Carinthia; the dukedom of Krain, the district of Trieste, the county of Gorz, with Friaul and Croatia upon the right of the Saave, and Fiume: of which—united with Dalmatia, Istria, and Ragusa, which were taken from the kingdom of Italy—Napoleon, on the 15th of October 1809, formed the new State of the Illyrian Provinces. The Teutonic order was now abolished, and its possessions given to those princes in whose dominions they lay. Russia obtained the circle of Tarnapole in Eastern Gallicia, containing 400,000 souls.

With this peace was connected the dissolution of the marriage between Napoleon and Josephine, in December 1809; and the emperor's second marriage with the archduchess Maria Louisa of Austria, in April 1810. This peace also occasioned a considerable change on some Italian and German dominions; the southern half of Tyrol was united with the kingdom of Italy, in the place of those countries taken from the latter, and annexed to the Illyrian provinces; Bavaria obtained for the cession of this part of the Tyrol, besides the already mentioned acquisitions, the old Prussian principality of Bayreuth and Rattisbonne from the prince Primate, whose State Napoleon raised to the grand dukedom of Frankfort, and enlarged with the greater part of the principality of Fulda, and the county of Warsaw. The dominions of Wirtenberg, Baden, Hesse, and Wurtzberg, were also enlarged by different acquisitions of new territory.

Previous to the breaking out of the war with Austria, the provinces of Urbino, Ancona, Macerata, and Camerino, had been united, on the 2d of April 1808, with the kingdom of Italy, because the Pope had refused to exclude the English from the ports of his State. Napoleon during his residence at Vienna, abolished the temporal power of the Pope on the 17th of May 1809, and united the remaining territories of the States of the Church with France, to which he had previously united Piedmont, Liguria, Tuscany, and Parma, besides Savoy and Nice. A pension was assigned to his Holiness; and the city of Rome declared an imperial and free city. The pope was conducted to Fountainbleau, where Napoleon concluded, in January 1813, a second concordat with him, in which, though the Pope did not resume his temporal jurisdiction, he obtained the right to keep ambassadors at foreign courts, to receive ambassadors, and to appoint to several bishoprics.

War with Russia.] However greatly the territory of France had been increased by the peace of Luneville and by the recent proceedings in Italy, the ambition of Napoleon was not yet gratified. On the 9th of July 1810, he incorporated the whole kingdom of Holland with his own empire; and the little republic of the Valais, considerable portions of the grand dukedom of Berg, and the kingdom of Westphalia and the Hanseatic towns were likewise annexed to the French territory. By these rapacious measures, the limits of France were extended to the Baltic sea in 130 departments. The dukes of Oldenburg and Ahremberg, and the princes of Salm-Salm and Salm-Kyrburg, became Napoleon's vassals by this

alteration; but the treatment of the duke of Oldenburg excited the indignation of his relative the emperor of Russia, whose friendly understanding with Napoleon had been already somewhat cooled, owing to the proceedings connected with the dukedom of Warsaw, and the continental system in reference to the English commerce. But the war between these gigantic powers did not break forth till June 1812, after that Napoleon had by special treaties with Austria and Prussia, concluded in the months of February and March, secured the co-operation of both these powers in the coming struggle with Russia. Napoleon left Dresden on the 29th of May, for the purpose of joining his army in Eastern Prussia, whilst the archbishop of Mecheln, M. de Pradi, appeared as his ambassador in Warsaw, where the re-establishment of the kingdom of Poland was formally proclaimed on the 28th of June, six days after that Napoleon had announced the opening of the second Polish war. He now crossed the frontiers of Russia, and the Russian armies retreated into the interior of the empire without offering any formidable resistance to his advance, except at the strongly fortified position of Smolensk, which was taken by storm on the 17th of August, after a brief but bloody struggle, the Russian general Barclai de Toley firing the town on his retreat. On the 7th of September both armies measured their strength in the great battle of Moskwa; after which the Russians evacuated the capital, which Murat entered on the 14th September. Two days afterwards, flames suddenly burst forth in various quarters of the city; the conflagration rapidly spread, and all means used to stop it were unavailing; in the issue the whole city was reduced to ashes, and the French being thus deprived of all the means of subsistence on which they had depended, commenced their retreat after having made proposals of peace to the czar, which were not accepted. The extraordinary severity and earliness of the winter destroyed the retreating army, although they struggled with great valour against the pursuing Russians in several fights, and particularly at the passage of the Berisina, on the 27th of November.

The weakened remains of the French army retreated at first under the command of the king of Naples, and subsequently under the viceroy of Italy, through Prussia and Poland, into Saxony. Napoleon himself hastened with a small suite through Dresden and Mentz towards France, where he employed the winter-months in raising new levies of troops, with which he appeared towards the end of April in Thuringia. The capitulation of general York, who commanded the Prussian auxiliary corps upon the Vistula, on the 30th of December 1812, to the van-guard of the corps of Wittgenstein, before any breach of alliance had occurred between his country and France, materially affected the issue of the war. In this capitulation general Massenbach joined the following day, and the public voice in Prussia loudly demanded war with France. On the 23d of January 1813, the king of Prussia went from Berlin to Breslau, where he signed the treaty of Kalisch, and entered into an alliance with Russia. The armies of these newly united powers sustained a considerable loss at Lutzen on the 2d of May, and at Bautzen on the 21st and 22d, in engagements with the French, upon which an armistice of ten weeks was concluded. Although Napoleon had now recruited his army, and effected an alliance with Denmark, the alliance of Austria and Sweden with Russia and Prussia, and the unanimous and hearty consent with which the subjects of these powers, irritated by the bondage in which they had for a long series of years been kept by France, seconded the efforts of their

governments, altogether threw such a physical and moral preponderance into the scale against the cause of the French despot, that even the successful defence of Dresden on the 27th of August, and the success of his arms at Lowenberg, in Silesia, on the 21st of August, could not save from the successive defeats of Grossbeeren on the 23d, of Katzbach on the 26th, of Culm and Nollendorf on the 30th of August, of Dennewitz on the 6th September, and of Wittenberg on the 30th of the same month. Having united his forces for one tremendous effort in the neighbourhood of Leipsic, Napoleon was defeated in an engagement fought during the 16th, 17th, and 18th of October, and compelled to evacuate that town, and retreat upon the Rhine, through Thuringia, followed by the allied troops. After a severe struggle at Hanau on the 30th of October, in which the Bavarians under the command of prince Wrede, took a decisive part against the French, Napoleon crossed the Rhine. The king of Bavaria had by a treaty with Austria, signed at Ried on the 8th of October, renounced the Rhenish confederation, as had been already done by the dukes of Mecklenburg. This example was followed by other princes and States of the confederation; and on the 30th of October, the grand duke of Frankfort renounced his temporal dignities, and retired into his bishopric of Constance, while the king of Westphalia took refuge in France; and the king of Saxony, after the taking of Leipsic, was detained a prisoner at Berlin, and afterwards at Friedrichsfelde. The sovereign governments in the kingdom of Westphalia, the grand dukedom of Frankfort and Berg, and the countries of the princes of Isenburg and Vonder Leyen, were now overturned; the elector of Hesse-Cassel, the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttel, and the duke of Oldenberg, returned to their own country; the British government again resumed Hanover; and the Russian administration was reintroduced into the provinces between the Rhine and the Elbe which had been lost in the peace of Tilsit. Considerable masses of troops, partly volunteers, and partly drafted from the Prussian militia, enthusiastically followed the Austrians, Russians, and Prussians, across the Rhine. The fortresses occupied by the French in the rear of the allied army were invested, while the main armies pressed forward, and the isolated French corps were driven back into the provinces of the Rhine, Holland, and Belgium. The advance of the Prussian general Bulow into the Netherlands, enabled that country to throw off the French yoke, and recall the prince of Orange from England, who assumed the title of Sovereign Prince. In the meantime Wellington crossed the Pyrenees, and in the battle of the Nieve on the 10th and 13th of January 1814, transferred the war to the French soil, while the allies defeated the French armies in their own country, at Bar sur Aube in Champagne, on the 24th of January 1814. Napoleon had the advantage over Blucher at Brienne on the 29th of January, but was forced to retreat at La Rochiere, where the allies had concentrated their forces. He now retired between the Loire and the Marne, with the view of covering Paris; and it was not without difficulty that Blucher succeeded in penetrating the French line. Napoleon, however, obtained a partial success against the Russians and Wirtenbergers; but the successful advance of the army of the North under Bulow gave a favourable turn to the affairs of the allies. Napoleon by his manœuvres tried to transfer the war to the rear of the allied armies, but Marmont retreated, on the 25th of March, after the fight of Fere-Champenoire upon Paris; and on the 31st of March the French capital surrendered to the

allied armies. Two days afterwards the senate, on the motion of Talleyrand, formally deposed their late emperor, who himself, on the 11th of April, in the treaties of Fontainebleau, abdicated the government of France and Italy, reserving for himself the sovereignty of the island of Elba.

France from the Restoration of the Bourbons.] After a residence of many years in England, Louis XVIII. appeared as king of France, and signed the peace of Paris on the 30th of May with Austria, Russia, England, Prussia, Spain, Portugal, and Sweden. In this peace the boundaries of France previous to 1792 were recognised; and, on the other hand, Louis renounced Belgium, Holland, and all the German and Italian countries which had been united by Napoleon with the empire. A constitution was given by Louis on the 4th of June, embracing an hereditary chamber of peers, and an elective chamber of deputies; but scarcely had the foreign troops which replaced the Bourbons on the throne been removed, than symptoms of dissatisfaction began to reveal themselves among all classes of Frenchmen, with the exception of the clergy. The military men could not forget their late glorious chief; the civilians felt their national honour too sorely wounded in the manner in which an overfed old man had been thrust upon them by foreign bayonets as their legitimate sovereign; the congress now assembled at Vienna had met with unforeseen difficulties in their negotiations; the moment appeared favourable for a new appeal to arms, and Napoleon having landed on the 1st of March at Cannes, at the head of only 600 devoted adherents, in the brief space of 20 days once more replaced himself on the imperial throne of France. His first wish was to treat with the powers assembled in Congress; but they refused to acknowledge him whom they had so lately hurled from the seat of empire, and once more advanced their troops upon the French limits. Napoleon anticipated their march, and penetrated into Belgium, where he defeated the Prussians at Ligny on the 16th of June; but on the 18th, the battle of Waterloo, in which Wellington defeated the French army, decided the fate of France and of Napoleon. On the 23d of June, Napoleon, a second time, abdicated the throne of France in favour of his son, and threw himself on the generosity of the British nation, as the noblest of his enemies, by going on board the Bellerophon, commanded by captain Maitland, then cruizing in the channel. The fallen emperor was carried to St Helena, in terms of a treaty concluded between the allied powers on the 2d of August, where he finished his eventful life on the 5th of May 1821. Before this last struggle with Napoleon began, an Austrian army in April and May 1815, defeated Joachim Murat, king of Naples, who had advanced into Upper Italy, after the return of Napoleon into France. The French army now retired beyond the Loire; and a few days after the battle of Waterloo, Paris capitulated a second time. Louis XVIII. returned on the 9th of July, and signed the second peace of Paris, in which France was reduced to the strict boundaries of 1790 on the 20th of November. To support the Bourbons, it was agreed that 150,000 of the allied troops, under Wellington's command, should remain in France; and a contribution of 700,000,000 francs was imposed on the country, to defray the expenses of the late war. As an act of justice all the works of art which the French armies had carried off from the conquered countries were returned to their former proprietors. It was a difficult task for the French government to pursue a firm and decided course in the midst of

so many contending parties as now distracted the country, and to adjust the struggle betwixt the old and new political system. The ultras demanded the re-establishment of absolute monarchy, and the liberals supported the charter. Religious fanaticism united its flame to that of political exasperation, and in the south of France the protestants were assailed and murdered as rebels to the government. In the midst of all this uproar the party of the ultras grew so violent in the chamber of deputies, that very serious consequences might have followed had not the king fortunately dissolved the chamber—which, on account of its principles, had been called "la chambre introuvable"—on the 5th of September 1820. Under the new and more liberal ministry now formed, the wheels of government run more smoothly, and the removal of the presence of foreign troops tended greatly to calm the agitation of the public mind. A melancholy instance of political fanaticism driven to madness was the murder of the duke of Berry, nephew of the king, on the 13th of February 1820, by a man named Louvel, belonging to the lowest rank of society, and who never could be brought to confess that he had any accomplice in his crime. This unfortunate event at once interrupted the moderate course which government had begun to steer; the ministry was dissolved, and the ultras again came into power. After several changes, count Villele was placed at the head of the ministry. A revolution in favour of a constitutional government having broken out in Spain, the duke of Angouleme at the head of a French army, entered that country, to put down the constitution, and re-establish Ferdinand, in which he succeeded.

Charles X.] Louis XVIII. died on the 16th of September 1824, and was succeeded by his brother, the present king, Charles X. The new government began with a very popular measure,—the abolishment of the censorship which had been established in the last years of the life of the late king, in the face of that charter in which he had guaranteed the liberty of the press. Count Villele, however, who remained at the head of the ministry, and his colleagues, enjoyed not the confidence of the nation; and the power and influence which the Jesuits once more began to exercise in France, increased the discontent of the liberal party who were even joined by a great number of royalists. Villele perceiving that he could no longer wield a majority in the chamber of deputies, made the king dissolve it; but public opinion ran so strong against the ministry, and in favour of the liberal party, that by far the majority of the new elections was against the ministers, which forced them to give in their resignations. The new ministry has begun in a moderate spirit, and it is to be hoped that France will, at last, in the enjoyment of rational and constitutional freedom, improve her resources and institutions. The important element of public education will, we trust, be eventually wrested out of the hands of the Jesuits. Something has been already done towards effecting this great measure, by a late royal decree which greatly limits the influence of that pernicious body, and which has contributed to inspire confidence in the present ministry. We sincerely hope that this long-distracted country has now entered upon a career of rapid improvement. Dupin, in one of his best works, says—"Between the years 1800 and 1815 the war cost France 1,000,000 of men, and 6,000,000,000 of francs. To this we must add the injuries we suffered in the two invasions, to the amount of 1,500,000,000 francs, the contributions to foreign States, of 1,500,000,000 francs, and the maintenance of 200,000 enemies' troops until the year 1818. France has completely healed these wounds in nine years; the population has in-

creased since the peace by 2,000,000; and we have gained considerably more than these sums in our improved agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, since." We sincerely rejoice in this statement. Our national jealousy would be grievously misdirected if we felt otherwise, for assuredly the progress which France is now making under a free constitution is one of the most redeeming circumstances in the political state of Europe. Her recent history too has taught posterity lessons in all departments of politics, which can neither be forgotten nor disregarded. It has shown the impossibility of universal empire, and the impolicy of extensive provincial government; it has proved the necessity of a popular element to every stable and efficient constitution; and it has supplied models of vigour, promptitude, and unity of action which succeeding States may do well to imitate. We owe another and a mightier debt to France for that great and salutary political element which she has introduced into the civilized world,—the command which mind has assumed in the affairs of nations. Government had been made the subject of deep intellectual investigation in our country, about the period of the glorious Revolution, by Hobbes, Sidney, Locke, and others of inferior note. The subject was taken up and pursued by the French philosophers. Yet no effect appeared for some time to have been produced in the popular mind of Europe by these inquiries. Hitherto, inheritance or conquest were held to be unquestionable charters for the right of wearing a crown, and popular revolutions usually originated in no deeper principle than the instinctive fear of peril, or hatred of oppression. And in this situation the world seemed to be slumbering on, nations looking up to royalty, as if some blind incontrollable energy resided amid its thrones and diadems and all its imposing pageantry; and sovereigns regarding the people as possessed of a brute force which it might be dangerous to exasperate, but never dreaming of any authority essentially and unalienably belonging to the public will,—when the echo of the fall of British domination in America awakened the nations of the Old World to a new and strange feeling of their own rights, and their own power. It was not long before this feeling found vent. But crushed and overlaid as it was with a burthen of many restrictions, it had to force its way like the earthquake through the rock, and at last with agitation, and ruin, and combustion, it burst forth in the capital of France, overturning the altar and the throne, removing the ancient landmarks, and pouring a deluge of blood over that devoted country. This first exhibition of the power of the awakened intellect, however, was more the paroxysm of delirious feeling, than the steady effort of deep principle. In the blindness of its excitation, it ran headlong into the most devious and savage courses. And it had to be chastened and moderated by a long and a severe discipline, before it could show itself in its true form and character. The reverence for authority, which in every government is a power of essential use, had been broken over a great part of the Continent. And before the love of freedom, which had seized the minds of the nations, could be expected to produce any thing like benefit to society, it was necessary to unite it with the love, or at least the reverence of order. This was effected in a great measure by the domination of Napoleon, and the consequences to which it led. The machine of the French government suddenly let loose from its former checks, was revolving with a rapidity and fury which threatened ruin to all within its reach, and made those giddy who gazed on it from afar, when Napoleon's iron hand arrested the wheels in their mad career, brought them again under subjection to authority, and at length delivered the whole ad-

ministration into the hands of his successors, so regulated and tempered in its movements, as to be easily managed, even by their feeble arm. The events which brought on his overthrow, contributed in other kingdoms to restore the reverence for authority, which had, in many places, been exchanged for feelings of hostility and contempt. And on the whole, the rise and the fall of this wonderful individual proved a severe but a salutary discipline to the spirit, who had so rashly undertaken the office of a ruling power in the political world. The bloodless revolutions which followed on the Continent, proved that the nations had learned wisdom from the view of the wild excesses, and the severe chastisements of the untempered spirit of democracy. Let not the madness of kings render the lesson useless. Their policy hitherto, has almost convinced the most temperate lovers of freedom, that the revolutionists of France were in the right, and that " Overturn, overturn, overturn," must, after all, be adopted as the watchword of liberty.

CHAP. II.—PHYSICAL FEATURES—SOIL—MOUNTAINS—RIVERS—LAKES—CANALS.

FRANCE generally presents a level, but not undiversified, surface; the only mountains that deserve the name are found 400 miles south from Calais, in the district of Auvergne. They are connected with those of Dauphiné, Provence, and Languedoc, but not with the Pyrenees. The general declination is towards the ocean and the Mediterranean; the coasts rise gently from the sea, and in few places exhibit cliffs or dangerous surfs. The finest parts of France lie along the course of the Seine to Paris: thence by the great road to Moulins, where it should be left, and the road to Auvergne followed; thence to Viviers, on the Rhone; and thence along the course of that river to Aix, and from Aix to Italy. The provinces of Bretagne, Maine, and Angouleme, have, in general, the appearance of deserts Some parts of Touraine are rich and pleasing; but most of it is deficient in beauty. Picardy is uninteresting. Poitou is by no means pleasant; and its extensive marshes resemble the Norfolk and Lincolnshire fens. Champagne is scarcely more interesting, in general, than Poitou. Lorraine, Franche-Comté, and Burgundy, even where well-wooded are gloomy, and destitute of cheerfulness. The same character applies to Berry and La Marche; though the chesnut-tree makes its first appearance here, and it is not easy to conceive how much the luxuriant verdure of this tree increases the beauty of the landscape. French Flanders, Artois, and Alsace, are more rich than picturesque. Mr Young says, that the Limousin possesses more natural beauty than any other province of France; hill and dale, woods, lakes, streams, and scattered farms, are mingled every where through its whole extent in a thousand delicious pictures. The Vivarraise along the Rhone, and the adjoining parts of Dauphiné, are most romantic; while, on the other hand, Sologne is so far from being beautiful, that its name has in some measure become proverbial for its melancholy appearance. The picturesque beauty of the hilly parts of France is heightened by the rich and luxuriant verdure of the chesnut-trees, particularly in the Limousin, the Vivarraise, and Auvergne. The look of Provence is rather gloomy than otherwise, the verdure being injured by the hue of the olive-tree; and the scenery of the plains of Burgundy is insipid. The most level tracts are the French Netherlands, on the north. From

the mouth of the Garonne, to the borders of Spain, the coast consists of a flat, sandy, and barren tract, called the *Landes*, producing nothing but heath, broom, and a few junipers. The other parts of France are, in general, agreeably diversified with gentle risings and depressions.

Soil.] The soil, as well as climate, of France, varies in different provinces; but is in general productive. The N.E. is the richest and best-cultivated district of the kingdom, and there are admirable corn-districts along the Seine, the Somme, the Rhine, and the Moselle. The chalk and calcareous hills of Champagne and Burgundy produce the finest vines. The soil of the basin of the Garonne is warmer but less productive than that of the northern districts. According to Young, there are seven different kinds of soil in France: viz. 1*st*, Rich loam; 2*d*, Heath; 3*d*, Mountain; 4*th*, Chalk; 5*th*, Gravel; 6*th*, Stone; 7*th*, Sand, granite, gravel, stone, &c. From a mode of calculation, of which he gives the particulars, Mr Young estimates the quantity of acres of each kind of soil, and the different districts to which these soils belong, as follows:

		Acres.	Acres.
Rich Loam.	District of the N.E.	18,179,590	
	Plain of the Garonne,	7,654,564	
	Plain of Alsace,	637,880	
	Bas Poitou, &c.	1,913,641	
			28,385,675
Heath.	Bretagne, Anjou, &c.	15,307,128	
	Guyenne, &c.	10,206,085	
			25,513,213
Mountain.	Containing Auvergne, Languedoc, Roussillon, Rouergue, Provence, and Dauphiné,		28,707,037
Chalk.	Containing Champagne, and parts of Angoumois, Poitou, Touraine, Isle of France, Sologne, &c.		16,584,889
Gravel.	Containing the Bourbonnais, and Nivernais,		3,827,282
Stone.	Containing Lorraine, Franche-Comté, Bourgogne, and part of Alsace,		20,412,171
Sand, granite, gravel, stone, &c.	Containing the Limousin, La Marche, Berry, &c.		8,292,444
			131,722,711

which total agrees nearly with that which we have already assigned as the superficial contents of the whole country.

Mountains.] The principal mountains of France are the Cévennes, the Vosges, the Jura, the Alps, and the Pyrenees.

The Cévennes.] The grand chain of the Cévennes rises to the west of the Rhone. It has been recently described by La Metherie. They seem to be the principal centre of the primitive mountains of France, extending into several branches. The principal branch runs in a crescent form along the river Ardêche towards Ales. The 2*d* branch traverses the Rhone, on the side of Tournon and Vienne, towards the plains of Dauphiné. The 3*d* branch forms the mountains of Beaujolais, passing by Autun towards Avalon; this branch extends 70 leagues in length, but is in some parts not more than one league in breadth. The 4*th* branch forms the mountains of Forez, separating the basin of the Loire from that of the Allier; it runs between Roanne and Thiers towards St Pierre le Moutier. The 5*th* branch separates the basin of the Allier from that of the Cher, passing by Clermont to Montlucon. The 6*th* branch extends in the direction of Limoges. The 7*th* chain stretches from the Dordogne towards the Charante; and the 8*th* divides the Dordogne from the Ga-

ronne. The main ridge of the Cévennes, of which, the above-mentioned branches are lateral chains, runs from N. to S. while the branches run in an eastern and western direction. The northern part of the chain is called the Puy de Dome, and is supposed to contain the volcanoes of most recent activity; the southern is called Cantal; and both are denominated the mountains of Auvergne. The Monts d'Or form the centre, and are the highest mountains in France. The chief elevation is the Puy de Sausi, rising 6,330 feet of perpendicular height above the level of the sea; while the Puy de Dome is 4,842 feet, and the Plomb de Cantal about 6,100. This enormous assemblage of rocks covers an extent of 120 miles, and is chiefly basaltic. Whether these mountains are of volcanic origin has been keenly contested between the Vulcanists and the Neptunians. We are utterly incompetent to decide the question; but it would seem, from experiments made very recently upon the component parts of these rocks, that the Vulcanists have rather got the better of the Neptunian orologists; and they are considered at present as extinguished volcanoes. These mountains are in winter exposed to dreadful snowy hurricanes, which in a few hours obliterate the ravines, and confine the inhabitants to their houses till a communication can be opened with their neighbours, sometimes in the form of an arch under the vast masses of snow. In summer, thunder-storms, accompanied by torrents of large hail, are frequent.

The Vosges.] On the eastern borders of France, the low and rounded chain of the Vosges—the Mons *Vogesus* of Cæsar—rises a little to the north of Deuxponts and Keyserlautern, and runs thence in a southern direction parallel to the course of the Rhine, and about 30 miles to the west of that river, separating the duchy of Deuxponts and the narrow stripe of Alsace, from Lorraine and Franche Comté. This chain extends as far as the neighbourhood of Besançon and the defiles of Porentrui on the south, where it is joined to the Jura. The highest elevation of the Vosges is the Tilt d'Ours, 4,580 feet. They are covered with rich pastures, and on the S. and E. with vines, and contain minerals of various kinds. In one of the valleys of this chain green granite is found: a rare substance of which tables and other ornamental articles are made at Paris.

The Jura.] The Jura, a vanguard of the Alps, forms the boundary between France and Switzerland, and terminates a little to the N.W. of Geneva. This chain, like the Vosges, is not very elevated; its greatest height little exceeding 6,000 feet.

The Alps.] A chain of the Alps crosses the three departments of the Maritime Alps, Lower Alps, and Upper Alps; and afterwards stretching to the north, separates France from Italy and Switzerland, as far as the neighbourhood of the Jura. The highest summits of this chain are in the northern district of the department of the Upper Alps, or Hautes Alpes. Some of these mountains are primitive rocks composed of granite, quartz, feldspar, and mica; others are calcareous. In the department of the Drôme, another Alpine ridge takes its rise, and crosses the departments of the Ardeche, Loire, Rhone, Saone and Loire, and Côte d'Or, as far as Dijon.

The Pyrenees.] The Pyrenees stretch on the south of France, from the Cape of Creuz, near the gulf of Roses, on the Mediterranean Sea, to the Bay of Figueras, on the coast of Spain. Their greatest breadth is 40 leagues, and their length 212 miles; their name is said to be derived from *phereni*, a Phenician word, signifying 'branch.' This vast chain, known

to geographers since the days of Herodotus, may be considered as equally belonging to France and Spain. Granite is the basis of this chain; but the Pyrenees have been found to present calcareous appearances; and even sea-shells are found upon their highest summits, which are about the middle of the chain, and belong to France. Mount Perdu was till very lately considered as the greatest elevation of the chain, being 1763 toises, or 11,297 feet above the level of the sea.[3] The Canigou formerly usurped that honour, though only 1431 toises high; but Messrs Vidal and Reboul, have recently ascertained that both these heights must yield to the eastern peak of the Maladetta, which is 24 toises higher than Mont Perdu. The other noted heights are Taccaroy, Marboré, the Pic du Midi d' Osseau, the Pic of Postis, the Niegeveille, the Vignemale, and La Breche de Roland. At a distance, the Pyrenees seem like a shaggy ridge, presenting the hollow side of a rugged segment of a circle towards France, and descending at each extremity towards the Atlantic Ocean and Mediterranean. Though the general direction of the chain is from S.E. to N.W. it must not be considered as approaching a straight line. It is on the contrary composed of two lines, which have a parallel direction, though they are but the continuation of one another. If the range were divided into two halves, the half towards the W. would be considerably more to the S. than the eastern half, while a junction between the two is made by a rectangular bend, by which the crest of the mountain is continued without break or separation. The highest summits are capped with ever-during snows. Blocks of granite are interspersed with vertical bands, argillaceous and calcareous; the latter primitive or secondary, and supplying the marbles of Campan and Antin, of beautiful red spotted with white though the general mountain-mass be gray. To the S. and E. the Pyrenees present nothing but dreadful sterility; but on the N. and E. the descent is more gradual, and affords frequent woods and pastures. As the level country on the French side of the Pyrenees is much lower than on the Spanish side; the Pyrenees appear much more lofty, when viewed from the plains of the Garonne, than when seen from the high land of Spain; but it is the opinion of the most celebrated naturalists, that the inclination of the southern side of the chain is considerably more precipitous than that of France, and access from this side is generally more laborious, for the French valleys ascend to the crest of the chain by an easy and gradual rise, an arrangement which is by no means so marked on the Spanish side. The principal defiles leading from France into Spain, are those from St Jean de Luz to Irun; from St Jean Pied de Port, to Roncesvalles and Pampeluna, and from Perpignan to Barcelona. The Pyrenees throw out numerous branches on both sides at right angles to the crest. This interesting chain of mountains has been recently explored by Arbanère, Charpentier, and Melling.

Rivers.] France is everywhere intersected with rivers, which diffuse animation, beauty, and fertility as they pass. According to native geographers there are 6000 rivers in France, of which 300 are navigable.

[3] According to the laborious Ramond, who ascended Perdu, the summit is covered with marine deposits. It is of very difficult access, as the rock sometimes assumes the appearance of perpendicular walls from 100 to 600 feet high; and the difficulties are increased by the snows, ice, and glaciers. Mr Ramond found the summit to consist of a black fœtid limestone, or marble; near its summit is a considerable lake, more than 9000 feet above the level of the sea, which throws its water to the east into the Spanish valley of Beoussa. This, travellers consider as a proof that Mont Perdu really belongs to Spain, and that Mont Taccaroy on the west, forms the boundary.

Among these, the Rhone, the Loire, the Garonne, and Seine, claim the pre-eminence.

The Rhone.] The Rhone, for velocity of current, and volume of water. is the greatest river of France; being inferior to the Loire in length of course only. It springs from the glacier of the Furca, on the western side of the St Gothard, in Switzerland; runs a course of 100 miles through the Valais, and in this course is augmented by numerous and rapid torrents rushing from the two chains of lofty mountains on both sides; enters the lake of Geneva at St Gingoulph, and, after a course of 40 English miles through the lake, issues from it at the city of Geneva, and runs in a western direction till it reaches Lyons, where it is joined by the Saone which forces the Rhone into its own direction. Below Lyons, it is joined by several rivers, the principal of which are the Isere, the Durance, the Ain, and the Sorgue. Pursuing a course directly S., it disembogues itself into the Mediterranean by two principal mouths, which form the small island of Camargue. Only very small vessels can enter the river by the western channel; the other entrance is the deeper, but, on account of the velocity of the current, the navigation up the river is very difficult. The entire course of the Rhone is 400 miles. From Lyons to Avignon—a distance of 140 miles by the course of the river—the banks of the Rhone are extremely picturesque, winding almost entirely among rocks and mountains, and perpetually presenting to the eye successive pictures of varied and romantic scenery. Between Lyons and Vienne the scenery is charming; woods, rocks, vineyards, chateaus on commanding eminences, cottages embosomed in trees retiring from the view, the busy traffic on the majestic river, and the prosperous villages along its banks, salute and delight the eye of the traveller.—The Saone, though losing its name in the Rhone, deserves a short notice. It rises at the southern termination of the Vosges, and joins the Rhone a little below Lyons. It is scarcely possible to conceive a greater contrast than that which is presented by these two rivers. The Rhone runs with astonishing rapidity, owing to the great descent which it has constantly towards the sea; the Saone is so extremely tranquil that it is difficult to say which way the current sets. This character is preserved even at their very junction; and it is said, that a distinct line of demarcation may be traced between them for a great distance, which gradually disappears till the character of the tranquil Saone is entirely lost and that of the impetuous Rhone only remains.—The Isere, which runs into the Rhone above Valence, rises in the mountains of Savoy, and passes through the city of Grenoble. As its course is wholly mountainous, it is subject to violent inundations; and can only be crossed near Valence by a ferry-boat of a peculiar construction.—The Durance, another tributary stream of the Rhone, rises in the mountain Genevre, on the borders of Savoy. It is extremely rapid, and its bed is full of banks and shoals, without any certain or fixed channel. Many plans have, at different times, been adopted to render it navigable, but they have all hitherto proved abortive. More than 130,000 acres of land have been entirely ruined by the masses of sand and gravel brought down by the ever-varying course of the rapid Durance.

The Loire.] The Loire is the longest river of France; running a comparative course of 500 miles. Its source is near mount Mezin, in Ardèche, whence it runs first S. then N. and afterwards N. W. dividing Burgundy from the Bourbonnais. It next enters Nivernais, where washing Nevers, it receives the Allier; thence running along between the pro-

vinces of Berry and Orleannais, it washes the walls of Orleans, and turning S.W. receives the Cher, the Indre, and the Vienne. It next passes by Saumur, and then receives the tributary stream of the Sarthe coming from Angers. Leaving Anjou, it enters Brittany, washes Nantes, and, widening its channel in which are several islands, enters the sea between Croisic and Bourgneuf. It is navigable to within 90 miles of its source; and, from Angers to Nantes is considered as one of the finest rivers in the world. The majestic breadth of the stream, the woody isles, the boldness, culture, and richness of its banks, all conspire to render that part of the country eminently beautiful; but, in the lower part of its course its character is changed and all its beauty lost.

The Garonne.] The Garonne rises in the valley of Aran in Catalonia, between Valentine and St Gauden, where it runs first N. W. then N. E. and receives the Ger; it then proceeds to Toulouse where it again turns N. W. and afterwards receives the Tarn; it then runs W. as far as Bourdeaux where it receives the Dordogne, which rises from the Puy de Sansi, having two sources issuing from the midst of basaltic columns, and forming, in their rapid descent, a number of picturesque cascades. After their junction, the Garonne and Dordogne lose their names; and the united stream is called the *Gironde.* The Gironde enters the sea by two channels near the town of Cordovan, after a course of 250 miles. Between Bordeaux and the sea, the river is full of shoals, which are so dangerous, that ships once grounded, are seldom able to get off. The Garonne begins to be navigable about Toulouse; from which place to Bourdeaux it carries the largest boats. The tide flows up nearly 30 leagues from the mouth of the stream; and is sometimes preceded by a huge billow that sweeps destructively along the shore; this phenomenon is called the *Mascaret.* The scenery of the Garonne between Toulouse and Bourdeaux is beautiful, the river rolling its course through extensive plains whose luxuriant fertility cannot be exceeded; but the mouth of the Gironde is girt with rocks and barren deserts.

The Seine.] The Seine rises at St Seine in Burgundy, not far from Dijon. Thence it waters Champagne, and passes by Troyes, where it formerly began to be navigable, though now it does not carry boats till it comes to Mery. At Montereau, it receives the Yonne. It afterwards crosses the isle of France, watering Melun, Corbeil, and Paris; and is considerably augmented before it reaches the capital, by the Marne. It receives the Oise 6 leagues below Paris, and enters the sea by a large mouth at Havre de Grace. This river near Paris carries heavier vessels than any other river in Europe, in proportion to the length of its course, and breadth of its channel. Its whole course is about 250 miles. The valley of the Seine, above Rouen, is not surpassed by any of the river-valleys in Europe, in point of fertility, beauty, and expansion. In some places, it has worn its channel through 50 strata of chalk.

Lakes.] There are almost no lakes in France; the few which occur in Provence and Languedoc are very shallow, and have by no means a pleasing or picturesque appearance. The principal of these is the Etang de Barre, in Provence, which covers an extent of about 300 square miles, and communicates with the sea. The lakes of Martigues and Maguelone yield a great quantity of salt. Some of the *etangs* or shallow inlets, in the lands of Bordeaux and Bar, are highly pestilential.

Canals.] The principal canals in France are that of Languedoc, uniting the Mediterranean and the Atlantic,—that of Burgundy, joining the

Loire to the Saone,—those of Briare and Orleans, which unite the Loire to the Seine,—and that of Calais, communicating with the canals of the Netherlands.

Canal of Languedoc.] The Romans are supposed to have formed a design of uniting the two seas nearly at the same place where the canal of Languedoc is now formed. This design was several times contemplated during the reigns of Charlemagne and Francis I. The plan was again examined during the reign of Henry IV. in 1598, and found to be practicable. Cardinal Richelieu determined to put it into execution, but was prevented by more important designs. At length, Louis XIV. in 1664, having appointed commissioners to examine more minutely the practicability of this project, the canal was begun under the direction of M. Ricquet, an able engineer, and finished in 1681. This canal is 64 French leagues, or 180 British miles long; 144 feet broad including the tow-paths, and 6 feet deep. Narouse is the highest part between the two seas. Here is a basin, 1,200 feet in length, and 900 in breadth, with 7 feet depth of water at all times. The water of this basin is conveyed by one sluice towards the Atlantic; and by another towards the Mediterranean. In order to keep a constant supply of water for this basin, another reservoir was formed at St Feriole, 7,200 feet long, 3,000 feet broad, and 90 feet deep; 2 sides of which are formed by two mountains, and the third by a large and strong mole, through which runs an aqueduct, that carries the water to the other basin. There are 60 sluices or locks, 15 of which are towards the ocean, and 45 towards the Mediterranean. The most considerable tunnel is that which goes through the mountain of Malpas, 720 feet long, 4 toises broad, and 4½ deep, with path-ways on both sides for the horses to draw the boats. There are 26 falls on this canal; the most considerable of which is that near Beziers, at the end of a reach 30 miles long, and so great as to require 8 locks. 12,000 men were employed 15 years in making this canal; the expense was £1,600,000; and it costs above £12,000 annually to keep it in repair. It falls into the Garonne, half-a-mile below Toulouse; but the navigation of the river is so bad till its junction with the Tarn, that the boats upon it are unable to carry any depth of lading, and it often requires many of them to take the lading of one boat from the canal. It is, therefore, proposed, to carry the canal forward to the Tarn, which would greatly facilitate the navigation between Bourdeaux and Toulouse. The canal of Brienne was planned and executed in order to join the Garonne, at Toulouse, with the Languedoc canal. This canal is broad enough to admit several barges to pass abreast; but it is seldom used; and Mr Young remarks, that while the canal of Languedoc is alive with commerce, that of Brienne is a desert.

Canal of Briare.] The canal of Briare is so called from a small city of the same name on the Loire. It was made for the purpose of opening a communication between the Loire and the Seine, by means of the river Loing. This canal was begun under Henry IV. and finished under Louis XIII. It commences at Briare on the Loire, and passing by Montargis and Chatillon, falls into the Loing at Cepoi. Formerly the duties paid by boats on this canal was very great; but they have greatly decreased since the canal of Orleans was made. By means of the canal at Briare, a communication has been made between Paris and the sea, and even between that metropolis and all the inland provinces situated on the Loire, or where there are other rivers that fall into it.

Canal of Orleans.] The canal of Orleans begins about two leagues

distance from that city, at Portmorant, and, after running through the forest of Orleans, and the adjoining plain, for a course of 18 leagues, the water being supported by several dams and sluices, joins the Loing near the spot where the canal of Briare falls into it. This canal was begun in 1682 and finished in 1692, under the care of Philip duke of Orleans, the regent's father.

Canal of St Quentin.] The Somme and l'Escaut are united by the canal of Saint-Quentin, in the department of Nord and l'Aisne.

During the period of the revolution, other canals were projected and begun. The most remarkable of these was to unite the five great rivers, the Rhine, Rhone, Garonne, Seine, and Loire, by a series of canals. The two former were to be joined by a canal from the Rhine, at Basle, to the lake of Geneva, passing through the lake of Neufchatel. Another canal from Beaucaire, to the Etang de Thau, where the canal of Languedoc empties itself, was to unite both the Rhine and Rhone with the Garonne; and lastly, by the restoration of a canal formerly made from the Rhone near Lyons to the Loire at Roanne, all these rivers were to be united: the Seine already communicating with the Loire by means of the canals of Briare and Orleans. It was also proposed to restore an old Roman canal made by Caius Marius, to supply the want of a safe and commodious navigation at the mouths of the Rhone. Marius' canal was cut from the port of Boure, near the Etang de Berre, at Arles, and through this his vessels could securely pass into the Rhone. Arles would be greatly benefited by the restoration of this canal.

CHAP. III.—CLIMATE—PRODUCTIONS—AGRICULTURE—MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Climate.] The climate of a country so extensive as France must necessarily be various: yet this diversity may be regarded on the whole as perhaps more favourable to the sustenance and comfort of human life than the climate of any other region in Europe. In the northern districts the climate is hotter and more moist in summer than in the S.W. part of England. In the department of Finisterre, an almost perpetual mist obscures the sky. It rains almost incessantly in Brest and Morlaix; and the inhabitants are said to be so accustomed to dampness and wet that dry seasons prove prejudicial to their health. The heat in summer is always moderate here; and the cold less intense by 6 or 7 degrees than in Paris. The humidity of the climate of Normandy is fully proved by the beautiful verdure of its rich pastures; yet, even at a distance from the coast, the rains in the north of France are extremely heavy, and of much longer duration than in England. In winter they experience heavier snows, and more severe frosts, than the natives of southern England; and whenever there is a long and sharp frost in the N. of Europe, it is felt much more severely in Paris than in London. The central division of France possesses the best climate. In Touraine and the Limousin, no snow falls sometimes for the space of many years, and frost seldom occurs. There are neither the fogs and mists of Bretagne, nor the excessive humidity of Normandy, nor the burning sun of the southern provinces. The air is pure, light, and elastic, and the spring a continuance of such weather as is enjoyed in England about the middle of May. The harvest commences about the latter end of June, but is sometimes so late as the middle of July. The

great heats are from the middle of July to the middle of August. Still, however, the climate of the central provinces has its disadvantages. All the country south of the Loire is subject to violent storms of hail and rain, the former occasionally beating down and destroying all the corn and vintage on which it may fall. These hail-storms are so frequent and ruinous, that it is calculated, on an average, that one-tenth of the whole produce in the south of France is damaged by them. Thunder-storms are also frequent and violent in the south of France. The cataracts which then rush down the mountains carry ruin and desolation along with them,—burying those meadows, which a few hours before were covered with beautiful verdure, under heaps of stones, or masses of liquid mud,—and cutting the sides of the mountains into deep ravines where formerly the smallest track of a rivulet was not to be discovered. In most parts of France, frosts are experienced so late in spring, and so early in autumn, as greatly to injure vegetation. The high country of Avergne is bleak and cold; and all the districts of the Vosges mountains are affected by the snow upon them, which sometimes falls so late as the end of June. In the southern provinces, the greatest heats seldom occur till the 15th of July, nor after the 15th of September. Harvest generally begins on the 24th of June, and ends the 15th of July. The middle of the vintage is about the end of September. During the continuance of the hot weather, scarcely any one who can avoid it thinks of quitting his house during the middle of the day. During the end of autumn, and the beginning of winter, violent rains frequently fall; but, in the intervals between the rains, October and November may be regarded as the pleasantest months in the year. In December, January, and February, the weather is generally fine; but, after February, the wind called the *Bise* or *Mistral* is very frequent. It is a strong N. or N.E. wind, generally accompanied with a clear sky, and not unfrequently with snow. It is sometimes so violent on the mountains, as to blow a man off his horse. It seldom lasts longer than three days at a time; but when felt it seems to pierce through the whole system. About Avignon the winters are rendered by it most distressingly cold; and the olive-trees sometimes perish to their very roots. Some parts of the coast of Provence, as about Toulon and Hieres, are still milder than the neighbourhood of Marseilles and Aix; but the northern and more mountainous parts of this province often experience very severe weather in winter. The vast swarms of flies and musquitoes in the summer months must be ranked among the chief inconveniences of the southern provinces. In the olive-district, the flies bite, sting, tease, and worry, in a most provoking manner; and if not driven away incessantly by a person who does nothing else, it is utterly impossible to eat a meal with any comfort.

Vegetable Zones.] The climate of France naturally divides itself into four zones, according to the vegetable produce which each affords. The most northern zone considerably resembles England, in vegetation and climate. The second differs from the preceding chiefly in exhibiting here and there a few vineyards; fields of maize begin to make their appearance in the third; and the fourth is distinguished from all the former by the intermixture of olives and mulberries with corn, vines, and maize. Coucy 10 miles N. of Soissons; Clermont in the Beauvaisis; Beaumont in Maine; and Herbignac in Brittany, mark the dividing line between vines and no vines. The separating line between maize and no maize is first seen, on the western side of the kingdom, in going from Angoumois and entering Poitou, at Verac near Ruffec; and is met with in crossing Lorraine, be-

tween Nancy and Luneville. These lines are not parallel to the degrees of latitude; but proceed in an oblique line from S. W. to N. E., parallel to each other. The line which is formed by the vines is nearly unbroken; but that formed by the maize, in the central part of France, proceeds no farther N. than the south of the Limousin. The line of olives is also pretty nearly in the same oblique direction from N. E. to S. W. It passes through Carcassone, near the Spanish frontier, and Montelimart, upon the Rhone, S. of Lyons. Hence, Mr Young concludes that the eastern parts of France indicate by their productions 2½ degrees latitude of more heat than the western,—a generalization somewhat erroneous. The surface of France rises gradually towards the E., and has consequently a lower mean-temperature on the eastern side than on the western; and the heat is more unequally distributed in the seasons, the winter being more vigorous, the summer more ardent. Hence the eastern provinces are better fitted for the culture of such plants as being annual like maize, or losing their leaves like the vine, totally escape the severity of winter. The western side of France, on the other hand, is better suited to the growth of such plants as fear cold: as the kermes-oak, the cork-tree, and the fig-tree. Having made these general remarks upon the climate, we must say a few things about the temperature, the state of the atmosphere, the winds, and the annual mean-quantity of rain that falls in different parts of France.

Temperature.] As to temperature, the annual heat of London and Paris is nearly the same; but, from the beginning of April to the end of October, the heat is greater at Paris than London. If the annual temperature of London,—the average degree of cold in January,—and the average degree of heat in July,—be represented by 1.000; the annual temperature of Paris may be represented by 1.028; the average degree of cold in January at 1.040; and of heat in July by 1.037. The annual temperature of Bourdeaux will be represented by 1.090; the average degree of cold in January, by .925; and the average degree of heat in July by 1.139. The annual temperature of Montpellier will be represented by 1.170; the average degree of cold in January by .850; and the average degree of heat in July by 1.196. In the centre of France the greatest heat averages 27 degrees of Reaumur's thermometer; and the greatest cold 7 degrees. In the north of France the greatest heat averages 28° 2′, and the least 6° 6′. In the east of France the greatest heat is 24° 31′, and the least 9° 5′. In the west of France the greatest heat is 24°, and the least is 6°. The greatest heat at Montpellier is 28° 1′, and the least 3° 7′. At Marseilles, the meteorological observations for 9 successive years gave an average of 25° 5′ for the greatest heat, and 3° 1′ for the least.

State of the Atmosphere.] As to the state of the atmosphere, in the neighbourhood of Paris the barometer never continues 24 hours without changing. In the western districts it rises and falls sooner than in the eastern. From a series of 15,000 barometrical observations made in order to calculate the influence of the winds on the barometer, Mr Burckhard found that the S. wind gave, for a mean height, 27 inches 11° 3 lines; while an E. wind raised the mercury to 28 inches 1° 9 lines. He also found, that the height of the barometer, on the Mediterranean shores, was 28° 22 lines; while its height on the Atlantic shores was 28° 2′ 8 lines. In central France the barometer's greatest height, on an average of several years, is 20 inches 5° 7 lines; the least 27° 3′ 3 lines. In the north of France the greatest height is 27° 10′ 10 lines; the least 26° 5′ 8 lines. In the west the average height of the barometer is 28° 3 lines. At Mont-

pellier, in the N. E. the greatest height is 28° 5′ 3 lines; the least 27° 5′ 5 lines. At Marseilles the greatest height of the barometer is 28″ 7′ 2 lines; the least 27° 3′ 7 lines.

Winds.] As to the winds, it appears, from a continued series of observations made in different parts of France, that in the centre, the prevailing winds are the S.W. and N.E. In the north the S.E. wind is most common. The N. and S.W. winds prevail in the east; in the west the N.E. wind; and at Montpellier, the N. and N.E. winds. The S.E. and N.W. winds prevail at Marseilles. The mean-quantity of rain that falls annually at Paris is 22 inches. The evaporation is generally greater than the rain: the mean-evaporation being 23 inches. In the centre of France, the average quantity of rain is rather more than 20 inches. The number of rainy days in the year is 164. In the N. of France, there are 126 rainy days; in the E. 145; in the W. 150. At Montpellier there are 74 rainy days, and the quantity of rain is upwards of 27 inches—a proof of the violence of the rain when it falls. At Marseilles, the quantity of rain is rather more than 21 inches, and the number of rainy days 57.

Productions.] France possesses a great variety of valuable productions of which we shall now proceed to give a general sketch

Horses.] With regard to domesticated animals, the horse deserves the first place in the enumeration. The horses of France have never been celebrated either for size, swiftness, or beauty; her ancient monarchs were drawn to the national assemblies by oxen. Previous to the Revolution, coach and saddle-horses formed no small part of British commerce with France. But Normandy has been long noted as producing the best horses in France; and William the Conqueror, it is affirmed, won the decisive battle of Hastings by the superiority of his cavalry, which were all of Norman breed. The Norman horses are generally low and thick, very steady, sure, and strong. The Limousin horses are fittest for the saddle. This breed has been lately improved by crossing it with the Turkish, Arabian, and English breeds. Auvergne produces good hacks. A great number of horses are also bred in Franche-Comté, especially in the hilly part of the country. The studs here annually produce 5000 colts; most of which are bought, when six months or a year old, by the horse-dealers in Champagne, Burgundy, Brie, and Berry. Napoleon—who owed many of his victories to his immense superiority in cavalry—paid particular attention to the breed and supply of horses; but his impatient and ill-judged interference in this as in other instances only served to frustrate his good intentions, and upon the whole, the quality of the breed, and probably the number of horses, has declined since the Revolution. The total number of plough-horses, in 1802, amounted to 1,500,000; horses kept at Paris, 35,100; in all other towns, 200,000; in the armies, 100,000; making a total of 1,835,100. Great importations increased them in 1812 to 2,176,000; but the Russian campaign and the disaster which succeeded, so much thinned their numbers, that in 1819 the horses and mules in France amounted together to only 1,657,671. To remedy this deficiency great numbers are annually imported. The number of horses in Paris is singularly small; indeed the total number of horses kept for amusement in France (*chevaux de luxe*) does not exceed 5000! The price of farm horses in the south of France averages £17 a head.

Mules.] Mules are much employed in the middle and south of France for treading out the corn. A particular trade in these animals is carried on in Anjou. In the department of Aveyron, especially near Rhodez,

a vast number of mules are fed; and in the two yearly fairs at Rhódez, the trade produces about 300,000 crowns. The mules of Poitou are particularly celebrated for their size and beauty.

Cattle.] More than half the tillage of France is performed by oxen, and in the mountainous districts small cows are generally employed. Perche, Champagne, Lorraine, Alsace, Flanders, Normandy, Brittany, Le Maine, Anjou, Poitou, Berry, Nivernais, Burgundy, Limousin, Auvergne, Bresse, Languedoc, and Dauphiné, are the provinces where oxen and cows are principally bred and fattened. The prevalent colour of the cattle from Paris to the Pyrenees, is a pale reddish, or rather a cream colour. The cattle of the Limousin are the best in France, and decidedly of this colour. They are short in the legs, have strait flat backs, well-arched ribs, deep and heavy carcasses, and their weight is from 60 to 80 stones of 14 lb. In a little island formed by the two mouths of the Rhone, called Camargue, which forms an equilateral triangle of 7 leagues, and was formerly covered with wood, but is now cleared and clothed with verdant pastures, vast numbers of sheep and oxen are bred and fattened; 3000 horses are also computed to be bred annually here. The oxen are reserved for the supply of the marine at Toulon, and are generally a small black Hungarian breed, similar to our Scottish cattle. They make excellent beef, but are very wild and mischievous. The Norman cows give the best and the most milk. Those of Lower Normandy, Brittany, and the Boulonnais, supply excellent butter. Gournay, in Lower Normandy, is particularly noted for its market of fine fresh butter, from which Paris is chiefly supplied. As cows are rare at Marseilles, milk is furnished from sheep and goats. Cheese is very little made in France. Normandy, Languedoc, Provence, Brittany, Forez, and Brie, furnish it in the greatest quantity; that of Brie is esteemed the best. France on the whole, is very inadequately stocked with horned cattle, and is obliged to supply this deficiency by extensive importation. The cattle of France are estimated at 7,000,000, being upon equal surfaces about half the stock of England; the supply of beef, milk, butter, and cheese for each inhabitant of France, is but one-third of the quantity consumed by each individual in England.

Sheep.] There are five native breeds of sheep in France; viz. 1*st*, The Picardy, hornless, white-faced, with silky hanging ears; their wool coarse and of middling length. They are probably a bastard Flemish breed. 2*d*, The Norman, red-legged and faced; wool coarse. 3*d*, The Be[illegible] breed, somewhat resembling the South-down sheep; the wool fine. 4*th*, The Roussillon, resembling the Spanish sheep, with very fine wool. 5*th*, There is a kind of sheep, near Mirepoix, resembling the Norfolk breed, with horns, black legs and faces. The peculiarities of French sheep are their long legs, thin carcasses, and coarse wool; and the mutton is generally bad. The sheep of the north are however larger, and yield a much finer fleece than those of the south. Merino sheep were introduced into France by Louis XVI. in 1786. There were four establishments of Merino sheep: viz. Rambouillet, Alfert, Perpignan, and Pompadour; but the demand for their wool was still further depressed by the Revolution. Buonaparte, in 1811, published a decree, by which he expected to cover France with fine-woolled flocks; but laws seldom meddle with private interests without proving detrimental. In the exposé for 1814, Buonaparte's forced attempts to introduce the Merinos are asserted to have cost the government 200 millions of francs; and after all, so far from having succeeded in his object, the breeds of

native sheep have been rather deteriorated. Sheep are kept in all parts of France, but principally in Roussillon, Languedoc, Provence, Dauphiné, Auvergne, Guyenne, Gascony, Bearn, Limousin, Marche, Poitou, Mayenne, Anjou, Brittany, Touraine, Champagne, Alsace, Franche-Comté, Normandy, and French Flanders. Sheep, in most parts of France, are shut up in stables at night, and sheltered from the sun at noon during summer. They are generally folded in the field till November. When the snow is deep, they are sometimes fed on the branches of trees. On the Cevennes, which run along the northern side of Eastern Languedoc, numerous flocks are fed in summer upon the aromatic herbs with which these mountains abound. They descend into the plains during the winter cold. But the most extensive and singular emigration of sheep is that which takes place annually, and as regularly as in Spain, from the Camargue, or Delta of the Rhone, and the stony desert of La Crau, to the mountains of Provence and Dauphiné, especially to those of Gap and Barcellonetta, and back again. The migration to the mountains take place in May; and they return in October or November, and sometimes sooner. It is conducted with all the regularity and order of an army on a march. The flocks belong to several proprietors, who principally reside near the mountains of the Rhone.[4] The shepherds in France never inhabit a house. They go to the cottages, in which their wives and children live, to take their meals; but sleep in their sheep-folds, in huts made of reeds and clay, and placed on wheels. The wages of the shepherds are generally high; and they are in every respect a superior class of men to those in our country. The wages of the chief shepherd are about £12 sterling. Besides this, he is allowed a certain sum for every sheep sold, his board at 1½ francs a day, and a free cottage for his family. The wages of the inferior shepherds are about £8 sterling; and he has the same allowance for board as the chief shepherd. The Pyrenees breed of shepherd-dogs are particularly celebrated. They are black and white, equal in size to a large wolf, have a large head and neck, and are armed with collars stuck full of iron spikes, so that no wolf can attack them. The average weight

[4] The sheep kept in the Crau and Camargue, are estimated at one million. They travel in flocks of 8,000 to 40,000, and consume from 20 to 40 days on the journey. The chief who guides the march is chosen from among the shepherds themselves. He regulates every thing belonging to the march; and is treasurer for the company. Another is appointed secretary, in order to check him. All payments are made in presence of the latter, who immediately enters them in his book. A council is formed of the shepherds, whom the chief consults on every emergency. Three shepherds, and as many dogs, are appointed to every thousand animals. A number of asses march in the centre of the flock, carrying the baggage and provisions. The chief is also stationed in the centre, whence he issues his commands and transmits his orders by his assistants. He also examines into any damage which may be done by the flocks in the districts through which they pass, and pays the person who has received the injury. If it was done from negligence the sum paid is levied on the offender; if from accident, it is deducted from the common stock. Besides the sheep, there are always a number of goats, who take the lead of the former; some of the oldest he-goats have bells about their necks. The discipline in which these are kept, and the intelligence which they display, is remarkable. At the command of the shepherds, they either halt or proceed; and when the flocks rise in the morning, the moment these goats receive the order to proceed, they repair to their stations in the foremost ranks with great regularity. If they come to a stream, they halt till the word of command is given, when they instantly plunge in and cross it, and are followed by the rest of the flock. When the flocks lie down at night, the shepherds and dogs continue on the watch, relieving each other at stated intervals. When they arrive at the mountains, each shepherd has his particular district allotted him by the chief. The feed is hired at the rate of 20 sous each sheep for six months; and the price for the winter-feed in the La Crau and Camargue is the same. During the whole time of their stay on the mountains, the shepherds live almost entirely on bread and goat's milk; sleeping on the ground, in the open air.

of the native fleeces is about 2½ or 3 lbs; that of the Merinos 6 lb. The wool of the former is generally but of an indifferent quality. The wool of Roussillon is the finest; that of Narbonne is nearly equal, but more cottony, and of a shorter fibre. The wool of Beziers is next in quality; that of Languedoc is somewhat less fine. The wool produced on the sea-coast is coarse and heavy. The wools of the mountains of Montpellier and De Sommieres are of three sorts; the first is equal to the wool of Pesenas; the second less fine; and the third very coarse. The wool of Berry is fine; that of Rheims inferior. The number of sheep in France was estimated in 1819 at 30,307,728; and the total of the wool they yielded at 106,770,000 lbs. At present they amount to nearly 36,000,000.

Goats and Poultry.] There are a great number of goats in France, principally of course in the mountainous parts. In the year 1819, M. Ternaux imported some of the celebrated goats of Thibet into France. These animals have become perfectly habituated to the climate, and bear equally well the keen air of the Pyrenees, and the heat of the central plains. The Cashmere shawls manufactured by M. Ternaux from the fine silky hair or *duvet* of the Thibetian goat have already acquired a high reputation. Pigs are chiefly fed in the neighbourhood of woods, or where grain is plenty. They are also fed on acorns; and in the Limousin on chesnuts. Poultry constitutes one of the principal articles in the rural economy of France; there is perhaps a greater weight consumed of it than of mutton. Eggs are an important article of export; the quantity of French eggs impo ted into Britain in 1827 was 63,000,000.

Wild Animals.] Bears are frequent in the neighbourhood of the Pyrenees, and in the Alpine districts of Dauphiné. There are two species of bears known here: viz. the carnivorous and the graminivorous. The latter, though not so fierce as the former, are yet more mischievous,—coming down in the night and eating the corn, particularly buck-wheat and maize, and so nice in choosing the sweetest ears of the latter, that they trample and spoil infinitely more than they eat. The carnivorous bears wage war against the cattle and sheep. There are several days annually appointed for hunting them, two or three parishes joining for that end. Wolves are numerous in different parts of France, and are very destructive to the sheep. A very large wolf infested the wood of Orleans for several years, in the middle of the last century; and was so bold and ferocious as to issue out of the wood by night and carry off women and children from the neighbouring villages. In this manner he had killed and devoured above 80 persons before he was shot. Wild boars are also found in different parts of the kingdom. The ibex and chamois are found in the Pyrenees and the Alps of Dauphiné; and foxes, otters, wild-cats, martins, squirrels, and beavers are known in different districts. Scorpions are common in the southern provinces. There are 11 kinds of serpents in France. Vipers abound in La Vendée; and, in the year 1804, a new and destructive sort was said to have killed some people in the forest of Fountainbleau. Honey is a very general product; that of Narbonne is esteemed the best. Bleaching wax is an important business in France; and several manufactories for that purpose are established in different places, particularly at Montpellier.

Woodlands.] The woods and forests of France are numerous and extensive, occupying about one-eighth of the surface; and, as wood is the general fuel, attention to their culture is indispensable, especially as by the last two treaties of peace the country has lost some of its best coal-dis-

tricts. A committee appointed by the first national assembly to inquire into the extent of the forests, reported, that the whole extent of surface covered with wood amounted to 13,100,691 arpents, of 100 perches of 28 square French feet each; or 10,143,000 English acres; but, according to M. Neckar and Mr Young, the woods of France amounted to 22,289,016 arpents; Chaptal assigns them an extent of 7,072,000 hectares, or 17,476,114 acres, and, if we estimate at the annual value of 10s. per acre, the sum total of the annual value of the woods will be above £8,000,000 sterling. The forests of Orleans, the Ardennes, and Fountainbleau, are the most extensive. The forest of Orleans lies to the north of that city and of the river Loire. It covers a surface of more than 100,000 acres; and contains several plains and villages. It is 15 leagues in length; but of very unequal breadth; being in some places 7 or 8 leagues, and in others only 2 or 3 broad. Before the Revolution the value of timber annually felled in this forest, amounted to 100,000 livres: the profit being part of the revenue of the duke of Orleans. Numerous banditti formerly haunted it; and it is still infested by immense numbers of wolves. The forest of Ardennes was in Cæsar's time the largest in Gaul; and extended from the conflux of the Rhine and Moselle on the E., as far as Artois on the W.—a space of 240 miles; and from the S. frontier of Luxemburg to the Waal on the N.—or 150 miles in breadth. This forest has been cleared in a great many places, especially towards its extremities. It, however, still extends over the greater part of the duchy of Luxemburg, the southern part of the bishopric of Liege, and the northern part of Champagne. Here, during the middle ages, the sons of chivalry, in the true spirit of their order, roamed in quest of adventure, and here were performed some of their most splendid achievements. The forest of Fountainbleau, anciently called the forest of Biere, covers 26,424 acres of ground, including many empty places where the timber has been cut down. Under the old regime, the national forests embraced 3,000,000 arpents; and yielded 12,000,000 francs to the royal treasury. At the Revolution, all the forests held by the corporate bodies and the emigrants were annexed to those of the State; which were thus increased to upwards of 4,000,000 arpents. These, added to the Belgian forests, and those on the west bank of the Rhine, in the year 1806 yielded rather more than 70,000,000 of francs. All forests of more than 300 acres were also added to the national domains, and declared unalienable. The arbitrary laws under which the private proprietors laboured were not abolished by the Revolution. According to these laws, the government appointed certain persons to examine all the woods, and to mark such trees as were deemed fit for ship-building; after which, the proprietor durst not lay an axe to the root of them. Besides, no proprietor of wood-land can cut down his timber, or clear his land, without giving six months' previous intimation to one of the conservators, whose report determines the government either to grant or to refuse permission to that effect.

Fruit-Trees.] The islands of Hieres, near Toulon, were formerly famous for their orange groves. But even the climate of the south of France is not steadily warm enough for this fruit. The severe winter of 1788–9 killed every tree in the Hieres; and those at present there are only such as have shot up from their roots. Some of these, however, produce 4,000 oranges annually. The lemon, citron, date, and pomegranate are not uncommon. The lime is also cultivated, especially in Provence. Figs, almonds, prunes, and plums abound. Chesnuts peeled,

boiled, and then reduced into a kind of pap, are said to afford a wholesome diet to the peasantry of the Limousin and other provinces of France. Mulberries succeed in the olive-climate of France, especially in the Lyonnais. The olive-climate comprehends a very small portion of the S. and S.E. of France. The territory of Aix yields the best olives, but the severe winter of 1788–9 destroyed so many olive-trees, and so few trees were planted during the tempest of the Revolution, that Aix—once the principal seat of the commerce in oil—has almost wholly lost this lucrative branch of trade; and the loss is not likely to be soon compensated as olive-trees are long in arriving at maturity. The date-palm is fruitful on the eastern shores between Antibes and Nice.

Botany.] To enter into any minute description of the French Flora here would be needless. It will be sufficient to remark that the extent of France is so great, and its climate so various, that probably more than one-half of the European species of plants grow within its boundaries.

Mineralogy.] A mineralogical and geological sketch of the different strata of the mountains, valleys, and plains of France would require more space than our limits allow. We shall content ourselves, therefore, with giving a very short view of the metals and minerals of France. Small quantities of native cinnabar, sooty silver-ore, red silver-ore, and corneous silver-ore, are found in France: the last is wrought at Allemont, in the department of Isère, where black silver-ore also occurs. Of copper-ore, France possesses native copper, and yellow copper-ore. Most of the copper-mines have been abandoned; the most important are those of Saint-Bel and Chessy, 7 leagues from Lyons. The chromate of iron has been found in considerable abundance, in beds of serpentine, in the department of the Var. Of the ores of lead, brown lead-ore, a very rare species, occurs in the lead-mines of Brittany. Native bismuth is also found in them. Native antimony, striated sulphurated antimony, and red antimonial ore, are found at Allemont, where red cobalt-ore, yellow cobalt, ochre, and sulphurated nickel, occur; manganese is extensively found in the department of the Saône and Loire, also in Charente, Vendée, Cantal, and Puy-de-Dôme. The hyacinth, emerald, beryl, tourmaline, and amethyst, occur in different parts of France, as also chalcedony in the department of the Isère. Turquoises scarcely inferior to those of the East, are among the fossil productions of the mountains of the Rouergue. Porcelain earth is found at Limoges. Considerable beds of adhesive slate are found at Menel Montant. Chalk and limestone abound; and gypsum, or plaster of Paris, is met with in great abundance in the vicinity of the capital, especially at Montmartre. A great number of organic remains, such as skeletons of unknown birds, elephants' bones, sharks' teeth, fish, and fish-skeletons, leaves, and parts of vegetables, petrified skeletons of various quadrupeds, and tortoise-bones have been found in the basin of Paris, in 10 different kinds of strata, forming as many distinct beds. Gold mines anciently existed in the south of France; and some of the rivulets still roll down some particles of this metal.[5] The only mine of gold that has been discovered, in modern times, is at La Gardette, in the valley of Oysans, in the department of the Isère. This event took place in 1791. It is a regular vein of quartz, traversing a mountain of gneiss, and con-

[5] The ancient Gallic coins (as Pinkerton observes) are of a base gold, mingled with silver,—the *electrum* of the ancients; and it is probable that the particles of gold rolled down the stream of the Rhone, between Tournon and Valence, and those of the Ardeche, are of the same quality.

taining auriferous sulphuret of iron, and some fine specimens of native gold; but the produce did not pay the expense, and this mine has been abandoned. Iron abounds particularly in the N.E. departments; indeed there are only 34 departments in France in which this valuable mineral is not wrought. The ore is often found in large lumps on the surface; and the strata are most commonly only a few feet below the ground. Great attention has been paid to the working of the iron-mines since the Revolution. There are computed to be upwards of 375 great furnaces in this country, employing 80,000 men in the working of iron and steel. The number of tons of cast-iron made in France in 1814 was 100,000, and in 1827 upwards of 200,000. Before the Revolution, France imported iron to the annual value of 10 or 12 millions of livres; and a great quantity of steel is still imported from Germany into France. The only mine of mercury that is now wrought is at Menildon, in the department of Calvados. is found in the departments of the Aube, the Gard, and the Ardêche; but chiefly in the department of the Aube, in the S.W. of Languedoc. Like coal it lies in beds, but not continuous; and is sometimes rendered impure by a mixture of pyrites, or fire-stones. It occurs sometimes in masses of the weight of 50 lbs. five or six toises below the surface of the ground. It is manufactured into rosaries, crosses, and buttons for black dresses, being an article of great consumption, principally in Spain. Solid bitumen, or asphaltum, is found in the departments of the Ain and the Lower Rhine; glutinous bitumen or pisalphaltus, in the department of the Puy-de-Dôme; liquid bitumen or naphtha, and petrolium, in Auvergne, Herault, and the Lower Pyrenees. Rosin is procured along the banks of the Rhone, from Seissal to Fort Lecluse. Alum is found in considerable quantities in Aveyron; and ochre, so useful in melting of metals, and in dyeing, is found in Berry. Peat earth, a very useful article where coals are scarce, abounds in various parts of France; and seems to have been used as fuel at a very early period. Within these few years, on account of the increasing scarcity of fuel, the attention of both government and the public has been directed to the state of the *turbaries*, or turf-pits. Besides the excellent quarries of freestone, in the vicinity of Paris, there are many others in the kingdom. These quarries afford hard and solid stones of surprising magnitude, being sometimes 24 feet long and 6 broad; and quarries of a kind of jasper are found near Salins, some blocks from which are so large as to be capable of making columns from 12 to 15 feet high. Marble quarries abound in the Pyrenees. Flint is also plentiful.

Coal Fields.] It is commonly supposed that France is ill-supplied with coal, and that this is one great cause of her inferiority to England in manufacturing industry. The prevailing opinion, however, involves at least one error, and possibly two. It is true that the seat of the principal manufactures in England and Scotland is generally in juxta-position with the great coal-fields; but this does not hold universally, for in Scotland we have coal where there are no manufactures, witness Mid-Lothian; and manufactures where there is no coal, witness Aberdeen, Perth, and Dundee. Norwich presents an example of the latter kind in England. In thickly peopled countries, some manufactures, such as those of iron, can only be carried on advantageously where coal is abundant; but there are others, such as those of silk and hosiery, in conducting which, cheap fuel is probably of less importance than cheap food, and where of course a plentiful corn-country, and great facility of communication, are the prime advan-

tages. But whatever causes may have given birth to the manufactures of England, or determined their location, it is certain that the inferiority of France in this species of industry, is not the consequence of a deficient supply of coal. Little coal is used in that country for domestic purposes, because wood is cheap, and is preferred by the people; and this, we have no doubt, is one reason, why the former species of fuel has been supposed to be scarce. Our entire ignorance of the mineral treasures of our neighbours, may excuse our error; but the fact is, that France is rich in coal, probably even richer than England. A little of British enterprise is alone wanting to render France most powerful in every thing relating to the production of coal and iron. A great coal-field commences near Arras, and pursuing a N. E. direction terminates in Osnaburg, extending over a space of 300 miles. The beds are about 60 in number, but only a few are thick enough to be workable. The part of this great field within the French territories is comparatively small. The nearest part is about 90 miles north from Paris. Another coal-field lies about 180 miles E. S. E. from Paris, in Lorraine betwixt the springs of the Saone and the Moselle, on the west side of the Vosges mountains. The aggregate thickness of the beds is about 20 feet. The coal-field of Creusot, 160 S.E. from Paris, near Auton in Burgundy, is one of the richest in France or Europe. The beds are from 60 to 100 feet thick. They lie far under the surface however, the pits being 600 feet deep. Very rich beds of ironstone are associated with the coal. The colliery opened in it is the property of two Englishmen, Messrs Manby and Wilson. The erection of the works commenced before the Revolution; and the whole sum expended on them has not been less than £600,000. There are eight steam-engines of the following sizes :—100 horse power; 40 ditto; 75 ditto; 18 ditto; 12 ditto; 20 ditto; 20 ditto; 112 ditto. The last is for hauling up coal, and three of the smaller ones are for the forge and boring mill. These are exclusive of five water-mills, of 200 horse power in the aggregate. The field seems to cover a circular space of 40 miles in diameter. It lies amidst the head-waters of the three largest rivers in France, the Seine, the Loire, and the Rhine. There is a coal field near Bourges, 160 miles south from Paris. The aggregate thickness of the beds varies from 18 to 40 feet; and the field is apparently 20 miles broad and 80 long. Another field lies at Angers, about 160 miles from Paris in a S.W. direction. Its breadth is about 20 miles; its length 40; and the thickness of the beds 18 or 20 feet. Its position on both sides of the Loire, and so near its mouth, must give it great facilities for water-carriage to every part of the west coast. There is a field about the same size as the last in Normandy, 130 miles W. from Paris, and the beds are from 8 to 10 feet thick. Another large field lies along the north side of the Dordogne, reaching within 30 miles of Bourdeaux. Its length seems to be about 80 miles, its breadth 20, and the beds from 50 to 60 feet thick. There are two fields in Languedoc, one about 70 miles long by 20 broad, approaching at its north end very near to Lyons; and the other about half as large as the former; its beds are about 50 or 60 feet in thickness. There is also a large field near Grenoble, and a considerable field in Provence, very near Marseilles and Toulon. Upon the whole, France has at least 21 coal-fields; and there are probably others not yet explored. Some of those shown are very large, and even more extensive than those of Britain. Their practical value, however, depends on the quality of the coal, the thickness of the separate beds, the facility of transportation, and various other circum-

stances as to which we have not sufficient information to enable us to form a correct conclusion. Britain has one advantage, that the greater number of her coal-fields are either upon or very near the sea, while those of France are chiefly inland.

Mineral Springs.] The great salt-springs at Salins demand some notice. They are three in number; the strongest of which yields 23 per cent of salt, and the weakest only one. As not only the quantity, but also the quality of these springs is improved soon after rain, it is reasonable to infer that they proceed from some natural magazine of rock-salt in the vicinity. The great salt-manufactory stands insulated in the midst of the town, and is surrounded with all the necessary apparatus for raising the waters, and heating the furnaces employed in the manufacture. There are salt-springs at Dieuse, and Chateau Salies in Lorraine; and salt-refineries at Moyenvic, in the district of the three bishoprics, as it is called. Sea-salt is made in great abundance on the French coast; particularly on the coast of Brittany, Saintonge, Aunis, Normandy, Poitou, and Languedoc. The salt-marshes of Saintonge and Aunis produce the best salt in Europe. The principal mineral waters in France are those of Aix, Barèges and Bagnères-de-Luchen. Those of Aix must have been known to the Romans as the very name of the town indicates, being derived from *Aqua Sextia:* baths having been established here by C. Sextius Calvinius. The temperature of the water is about the same with that of the Queen's bath, at Bath; and, in its component parts it is similar to those of Aix la Chapelle: viz. principally sulphur, carbonate of lime, and muriate of soda. Two of the tepid springs at Bagnères are equal to the temperature of the human body; 10 are above it, and 18 below it. The waters of the Queen's bath, at Aix, are strongly purgative; those of Salut and La Pre, diuretic and cooling. The other mineral waters of any consequence in France are those of Forges, Vichy, Bourbon-Lancy, Balaruc, Plombières, and Passy. The greater part of these springs are under the inspection and superintendence of physicians appointed by government.

State of Agriculture before the Revolution.] Previous to the Revolution the state of agriculture in France was little superior to that of any other country of continental Europe. Nearly two-fifths of the land, susceptible of cultivation were in what is termed culture and pasturage, and produced on an average about a half of what good culture on the like quantity of the same soil would have produced. The various tenures under which land was held were almost all decidedly injurious to agriculture. The manor-rents of the clergy have been variously estimated: by Condorcet, their landed revenue was calculated at nearly one-fifth of the property of the kingdom; Neckar estimated their revenue at 130,000,000 livres. It is at any rate probable, that the least valuation of their manorial rental amounted to 120,000,000 livres, or £4,800,000 sterling, independent of their tithes which might be estimated at £3,600,000 sterling. The domains of the crown, and of the princes of the blood, yielded a rental of £1,200,000 sterling. The honorary and feudal dues paid to the nobility, (whose numbers exceeded 44,000) with *corvées*, militia, &c. amounted, at least, to £5,000,000 sterling; and the government drew from the produce of agriculture the sum of £8,000,000 sterling. In fine, it has been calculated, that, exclusive of the rents of land paid to the lay proprietors, and of the duties of excise, consumption, and the like, the produce of the soil was charged annually with upwards of £21,000,000 sterling. But disadvantages, still more discouraging and oppressive, pressed upon agri-

culture previous to the Revolution, which we cannot properly understand and estimate without a due consideration of the different modes of occupying land which then existed, and some of which still remain. In the first place, there were the small properties of the peasants. These were numerous to a degree of which we have no conception in Britain, and which we should not have expected in the midst of the enormous possessions and oppressive privileges of the nobility and clergy. They were to be found even in those provinces where other tenures prevailed, but principally in Languedoc, in the department of the Lot, the whole of the district of the Pyrenees, Bearn, Gascony, part of Guyenne, Alsace, Flanders and Lorraine. The condition of the peasantry who possessed these small properties varied much in different parts of the kingdom. In Flanders, Alsace, on the Garonne, and more especially in Bearn, they were in comfortable circumstances, and might rather be denominated farmers than cottagers; in Lower Brittany many of them were rich; but this character could by no means apply to them generally. The minute division of property had, in fact, produced the effects which might be expected from it; and poverty and misery were every where too visible particularly in Lorraine and the adjacent districts of Champagne. A rental in money was the second mode of possessing land. These tenures, though also found in other parts of France, did not exist upon a moderate estimate in more than a 6th or 7th part of the kingdom before the Revolution. The mode of occupying land was by feudal tenures. This mode prevailed most in Brittany, Limousin, Berry, and La Manche, but was in use in a greater or less degree, through the whole kingdom. These feudal tenures were fiefs, granted by the seigneurs, or lords of the parishes, under a reservation of fines, quitrents, forfeitures, services, &c. many of which were of the most oppressive kind. Nay, even the landed proprietors themselves were greatly harassed by the *capitaineries* or paramountship of certain districts, granted by the king to princes of the blood; putting them in possession of the property of all game, even on lands not their own, and even on manors granted long before to individuals; so that, by this paramountship all manorial rights were annihilated. That species of taxation denominated the *corvées* was also peculiarly oppressive and injurious to agriculture, though not confined to the feudal tenures just mentioned. By the *corvées*, individuals were obliged to mend the roads by personal labour; it is evident that this tax must have fallen exclusively on the poor; or, if it was performed by those who kept labourers, it must have deprived them of the means of attending fully to their agricultural occupations. It was also an easy engine of oppression: for, under the pretence of carrying on the work without interruption, those who were liable to the *corvée*, had it frequently allotted them at some leagues from their dwelling. There were also military *corvées*, which fell only on the villages situated in the line of march, the inhabitants of which were obliged to leave their occupation, however inconvenient and injurious it might be, and repair the roads along with the soldiers. Such are a few of the oppressions under which agriculture laboured in France before the Revolution: arising either from the feudal tenures, or from the more general operation of the laws and measures of government, the privileges of the nobility and clergy, and the usages of the country. A fourth mode of occupying land resembled that common in Ireland, and which is there the source of much misery and oppression. Men possessed of money hired great tracts of land at a money-rent, and relet them in small divi-

sions to *métayers*. This mode of occupying land was most common in Poitou, Berry, La Manche, and Angoumois; but it also occurred in other provinces. The *métayers* were a kind of farmers that gradually succeeded to the slave-cultivators or *coloni partiarii* of the Romans. They supplied the labour necessary for cultivating the land, while the proprietor furnished them with the seed, cattle, and instruments of husbandry, and in short the whole stock necessary for cultivating the farm. It was the common agreement between the proprietor and the farmer that the produce should be equally divided, after setting aside what was necessary for keeping up the stock, which was restored to the proprietor when the tenant quitted his farm. Seven-eighths of the lands in France were held under this tenure before the Revolution. Half the produce was generally paid to the proprietor; but in Champagne it seldom exceeded a third. The *métayers* were so poor in some parts of France, and consequently so dependant on their landlords, that they were obliged almost every year to borrow corn for bread from them before the harvest came round. Such were the tenures of land before the Revolution. Let us now see what effect that event has produced on them, and on the condition of the agricultural class in general.

Changes at the Revolution.] In the first place the number of small properties has been greatly increased in all parts of France. The national domains consisting of the confiscated estates of the church and emigrant nobility, were exposed to sale during the pecuniary distresses of the revolutionary government. For the accommodation of the lowest order of purchasers, they were divided into small portions, and five years were allowed for completing the payment. In consequence of this indulgence, and of the depreciation of assignats, the poorest classes of the peasantry were enabled to become proprietors of from one to ten acres. Another cause has also contributed to increase the number of small proprietors since the Revolution. Before that event it seems to have been the law, or at least the custom, invariably to divide the landed property among all the children. This originally local law was extended, soon after the Revolution, to the whole kingdom; so that, by the present law of France abolishing the right of primogeniture in landed property, the largest estate must sooner or later be broken up, and the succession to the smallest patch regulated by the principle of equal division among the children. The deplorable result of this division and subdivision of little properties, in a country like France, already so fully appropriated, may be easily conceived. "I hear on all sides," says Mr James Paul Cobbett—who travelled through a great part of France in 1823—"here, in Normandy, great lamentations on account of the effects of this revolutionary law. They tell me that it has dispersed thousands upon thousands of families, who had been on the same spots for centuries; that it is daily operating in the same way; that it has in a great degree changed the state of the farm-buildings; that it has caused the land to become cultivated; that it has caused great havoc among timber-trees; and there are persons who do not scruple to assert that society in France will become degraded in the extreme unless the law be changed in this respect." Perhaps the best illustration of the state to which landed property is tending in France may be deduced from the returns to the *contribution fonciere*. It appears from the tables given in a pamphlet of the Duc de Gaete, published in 1818, that there were in 1816 no fewer than 10,414,121 taxable properties great and small. M. de Gaete reckons that there are 4,833,000 individual proprietors, of whom

3,665,300 pay upon an average 12.88 francs yearly tax upon their property, representing an yearly income of 64 francs, or 51s. sterling, being in fact mere day-labourers with a cottage and garden belonging to themselves. As many of the individual proprietors are heads of families, M. de Gaete calculates the amount of the class of proprietors at 14,479,830; so that very nearly one-half of the population of France belongs to that class; and if to these we add 4,941,000 agricultural labourers who are not proprietors, there are altogether two-thirds of the population of France directly engaged in the cultivation of the soil. According to the census of 1821, there are 2,941,374 families in Great Britain, of which only 978,657, or less than one-third of the whole, are employed in conducting the infinitely superior system of cultivation adopted in our country. Hiring at money-rent, however, has become much more general since the Revolution; and we may reasonably expect, that this species of tenure will become more and more prevalent. Feudal tenures have been annihilated, as well as tithes, game-laws, capitaineries, and corvées; but in some parts the tenantry are still taken to perform certain services, though by the law these must be entirely of an agricultural nature. The other two species of tenure, that is, where men of property hired a great tract of land at a money-rent and re-let it in small divisions, and the system of *métairie* still exist, though not nearly to such an extent or in such an odious form as before the Revolution. Indeed, considering that these species of tenure were the unavoidable and necessary consequences of inadequate agricultural capital, we cannot expect that they should be abolished by the mere operation of law, or by the direct effects of any revolution.

Distribution of the Soil.] The surface of France contains 52,000,000 *hectares*, which are thus distributed. The English acre is to the French hectare as 0,4049 to 1000, or nearly 2 to 5.

	Hectares.		Hectares.
Arable land,	22,818,000	Mines and Quarries,	28,000
Woods regularly cut for fuel,	6,612,000	Gardens, Parks, Pleasure Grounds,	16,000
Wood allowed to grow for timber,	460,000	Canals,	9,000
Pastures,	3,525,000	*Cultures particulieres:* crops too small to be classed but as sundries,	780,000
Meadows,	3,488,000	Waste lands, heaths, sands,	3,841,000
Chesnut woods,	406,000	Buildings,	213,000
Orchards,	359,000	Unproductive, as towns, roads, rocks, rivers,	6,555,000
Kitchen gardens,	328,000		
Lakes, Ponds, &c.	213,000		
Marshes,	186,000		
Hops and Hemp,	60,000		
Osieries,	53,000		
Olives,	43,000	Total,	52,000,000

Rents.] The rent of land is low in most parts of France. Before the Revolution, the rent of the land, both arable and in lucerne, was averaged, by Mr Young, at 15s. 7d., woods at 12s. vineyards at £3 16s. 6d., meadows at £2 3s. 3d., and wastes at 1s. 9d. per acre; extremely good land may be got at present at 18s. and 20s. the acre. Before the Revolution, the average price of all the cultivated land in the kingdom was calculated by Mr Young at £20 the English acre. An estate containing near 1,000 acres arable and 500 wood-land, is stated by Mr Birbeck as being let on a lease of nine years for £375 sterling; and might be bought at 22 years purchase, or £8,333. One-third of the arable land of this farm was poor cold clay; the rest pretty good wheat-land. Mr Pinckney, who travelled

through the south of France along the Rhone in 1807, states that the average rents from Marne to Paris were about 13s. the English acre; and the purchase from £15 to £18. The value of the vine-districts of France is much higher, amounting on an average to more than £60 per acre according to some authors; by others, however, they are rated at only £41 per acre. The farms are generally small in size; few, even in Normandy and the other provinces where agriculture is conducted on the best plan and with the greatest capital and skill, reaching 300 acres. As to agricultural capital, Mr Young estimated it at 40s. per acre, employed on the farms, on an average of all the kingdom. It however appears that he was mistaken; and that the average is at present much higher.

Rotation of Crops.] In tillage, and the instruments of husbandry, the French farmers are far behind the English. Their agricultural implements are coarsely and unskilfully made, and show little proficiency in the mechanical arts. Mr Young has so ably illustrated the defects of French husbandry, that we cannot avoid quoting his own words: "In order the better to understand how the great difference of product between the French and English crops may affect the agriculture of the two kingdoms, it will be proper to observe, that the farmer, in England, will reap as much from his course of crops, in which wheat and rye occur but seldom, as the Frenchman can from his, in which they return often.

English course.		French course.	
1. Turnips,		1. Fallow,	
2. Barley,		2. Wheat, . . .	18
3. Clover,		3. Barley or oats,	
4. Wheat, ...	25	4. Fallow,	
5. Turnips,		5. Wheat, ...	18
6. Barley,		6. Barley or oats,	
7. Clover,		7. Fallow,	
8 Wheat, ...	25	8. Wheat, ...	18
9. Tares or beans,		9. Barley or oats,	
10. Wheat, ...	25	10. Fallow,	
11. Turnips,		11. Wheat, ...	18
	75		72

"The Englishman, in eleven years," continues Young, "gets three bushels more of wheat than the Frenchman. He gets three crops of barley, tares, or beans, which produce nearly twice as many bushels per acre, as what the French crops of spring-corn produce. And he further gets, at the same time, three crops of turnips, and two of clover,—the turnips worth 40s. per acre, and the clover 60s. that is £12 for both. What an enormous superiority! More wheat; almost double of the spring-corn; and above 20s. per acre per annum in turnips and clover. But farther; the Englishman's land, by means of the manure arising from the consumption of the turnips and clover, is in a constant state of improvement, while the Frenchman's farm is stationary. Throw the whole into a cash-account, and it will stand thus:

English system.				French system.			
Wheat, 75 bushels, at 5s.	£18	15	0	Wheat, 72 bushels at 5s.	£18	0	0
Spring corn, 3 crops, of 32 bush. 96 bush. at 2s. 6d.	12	0	0	Spring corn, 3 crops at 20 bushels, 60 bushels at 2s. 6d.	7	10	0
Clover, 2 crops, ...	6	0	0		£25	10	0
Turnips, 3 crops, ...	6	0	0	Per acre per annum, . .	2	6	4
	£42	15	0				
Per acre per annum, . .	3	17	8				

"In allowing the French system to produce 25 bushels of spring-corn, while I assign 32 only to the English, I am confident that I favour the former considerably; for I believe that the English produce is double that of France; but stating it as above, here are the proportions of 42 on an improving farm, to 25 on a stationary one; that is to say, a country containing 100,000,000 acres produces as much as another whose area contains 168,000,000, which are in the same proportion as 42 and 25." The chief defect in the French husbandry seems to consist in attempting to have corn upon the land as frequently as possible. The consequence is, that few cattle are fed, manure is almost totally wanting, the soil is exhausted, and once in three years is prepared by a fallow to produce a scanty crop of wheat and another of spring-corn. It must be owned, however, that in some parts of France the soil is more profitably used. Where maize can be cultivated, it supplies the place of fallow; and then the ground, instead of lying waste, affords a crop useful for human sustenance as well as proper for the feeding of cattle. In some parts—chiefly in the southern provinces—irrigation is well-understood and carried on to a considerable extent. Forty years ago, when the population of France was only 25,000,000, the annual produce of corn was about 14,000,000,000 of pounds. At present the annual produce of corn is very little more; and there is neither exportation nor importation of that article. It is presumed, therefore, that the land which has been brought into cultivation, since the Revolution, has been devoted to the growth of leguminous plants and of potatoes, rather than to that of wheat and other grain. Among the crops cultivated in France, may be mentioned lucerne, which, though seldom profitable in England, is in many parts of the former country an advantageous crop. Sainfoin is raised, but the culture is not skilfully managed. Beans are cultivated in some places, but much less universally than might be proper. In several districts broom is permitted at certain times to overrun the land. Some of it when tender is applied to the purpose of feeding cattle; but the greater part is made into faggots for burning. Carrots and parsnips are in some places cultivated for the purpose of feeding cattle. Cabbages are advantageously raised for the same use. Clover is sown, but the management of it seems not to be well-understood. Chesnuts are often planted on arable land where they certainly injure every other crop; but sometimes they are planted in situations where almost nothing else could be reared, and, in this case, the advantage is as considerable as it is obvious. Chiccory, a green crop, hardly known in England, has been cultivated in some districts of France to much advantage. Furze is sown, and, when tender, is cut for feeding horses. Hemp and flax are cultivated by individuals for domestic manufacture; but seem not to be raised as a crop to be profitably sold. Madder is sown in some places, but the management is said to be poor. Maize has already been noticed as one of the most profitable crops in the climate and soil to which it is adapted. Olives thrive in only a few places, and even in those places, the culture is not general. Poppies are cultivated in considerable quantities for the oil which they afford. Tobacco is raised in many parts of France, and is esteemed a profitable crop. Turnips are almost wholly unknown as objects of culture, and where introduced, are very improperly managed. The utility and effect of manuring are well-understood in some provinces; but the want of cattle necessarily renders manure scanty. Even where it is sufficiently plentiful, it is used rather to procure great quantities of wheat and rye, and other exhausting crops, than to procure crops which, while

they meliorate the soil, maintain a great number of cattle and thus improve the ground. Tillage in some places is neatly executed; but, in the greater part of the country it is performed in a very slovenly manner. In many parts of France, they tread out the corn with oxen, horses, or mules, instead of thrashing it by a manual operation, or by any machine. Great part of the country is enclosed, but the fences too often bespeak the inattention of the farmer. A model farm has been lately established at Roville, in the valley of the Meurthe, under M. de Dombasle, a skilful practical agriculturalist, who has already doubled the produce of the land under his care: the average annual return of Roville being 59 francs per hectare of 2½ acres, while that of the rest of the department of the Meurthe is but 28½ francs per hectare. In Franche-Comté and the department of Doubs the government has taken the breeding of cattle under its care, and established annual exhibitions and prizes. In Picardy the increase of sheep-flocks, and the improved system of manuring, have added to the fertility of the soil. "In five-sixths of France," says Baron Dupin, in his *Petit Producteur*, "the agricultural instruments are still made in the rudest form. They are so badly constructed,—so ill-adapted to the animal power which sets them in motion, that they cause the half of it, two-thirds, and sometimes even three-fourths, to be wasted." "There are still some part of France," he observes in another place, "where the people have not a sufficient number of domestic animals to prevent the women being employed as beasts of burden or draught; they drag barrows and dung-carts, haul along boats and vessels, carry heavy burdens, drive the plough, and share the most irksome labours. Shall I mention, even, that one generation has scarcely passed away since France saw in some of the valleys of the Alps, women harnessed to the plough in conjunction with asses!"

Horticulture.] The French have made great progress in the useful branches of horticulture. The banks of the Moselle, Finisterre in Normandy, the environs of Lyons and of Aix, are all equally celebrated for their horticultural industry. The fruit-gardens at Montreuil, near Paris, are a curious instance of the accumulation of capital in a small space. They are said to be worth £400 an acre; and all the occupants are proprietors. The environs of Lyons are celebrated for their artichokes, which are carefully conveyed in great quantities all over the kingdom. Vegetables for the table are also cultivated in great perfection at Provence, and particularly about Aix, where the country is a continued scene of kitchen gardens. The inhabitants of Roscoff, a town on the northernmost point of the department of Finisterre, apply themselves particularly to raising vegetables for the table; and are so eminently successful in this branch, that Brest, Morlaix, and several other towns, draw their supplies almost entirely from them. Cauliflowers, brocoli, cabbages, turnips, asparagus, and artichokes, are produced here in amazing abundance, and of an excellent quality. The value of the annual produce of the orchards in France is estimated at 21,500,000 francs; that of the fruit cultivated by espaliers at 64,500,000 francs; and that of the kitchen-gardens at 197,000,000 francs. In the department of ornamental gardening, France is still far behind. The straight avenue, the terrace, the parterre, with formal basins, and jets d'eau, are still the only objects which, in the opinion of the generality of Frenchmen can constitute real grandeur and beauty in a garden.

Vineyards.] As wine is one of the most valuable products of France, one might have expected, from the aides and customs levied on the con-

sumption and export of this article previous to the Revolution, that the extent of vineyards in the kingdom might have been estimated with a tolerable degree of accuracy. Yet this is by no means the case. M. de Trosne, about the year 1780, assigned them an extent of 1,600,000 arpents. The author of the *Crédit National*, supposed them at the same period to occupy nearly 8 times that space; Mr Young concluded that the culture of the vine occupied nearly the twenty-sixth part of the territory of France; and the justness of this conjecture is confirmed by M. Chaptal, who gives the extent of the vineyards at 1,977,000 hectares, or about a twenty-second part of the surface of the kingdom. The vine is cultivated on all kinds of soil; but is mostly planted on rocky and inferior soils, in all situations and exposures. In the beginning of the last century, upon an average of five years, from the year 1720 to 1725, France exported annually, wine to the amount of 20,880,000 livres. In 1778, the exportation amounted to 24,570,170; and it appears from the official returns that the value of the wines sent from France to foreign countries, on an average of the three years ending with 1790, amounted to 32,368,500 francs, and that of the brandies, vinegars, &c. to 18,627,600 francs, making together nearly 51,000,000 of francs, or above £2,000,000 sterling. The Revolution nearly annihilated the exportation of French wines. Previous to that event the annual exportation of wine from Bourdeaux amounted at an average to about 100,000 tons: but, notwithstanding the increased opulence and growing taste for French wines in the north of Europe, and America, and their increased consumption in this country since the reduction of the duties in 1824, such has been the influence of the prohibitory system, or of the exclusion from France of the principal equivalents that foreigners had to give in exchange for wines, that their export is now reduced to less than one-half of what it amounted to previously to 1790, and a large proportion of the actual exports are made on speculation only. Nay, the home-traders are oppressed in the most grievous manner by fiscal and custom-house regulations. Our brewers and distillers are in a state of freedom compared with the wine-growers of France, who cannot convey their wine from one cellar to another in the same establishment without payment of a duty, or introduce it into any town but it must pay a duty or *octroi* at the barrier, which increases according to the population of the town. A tun of wine which has cost the purchaser 60 francs, would, if introduced into Bourdeaux, be charged with a duty of 97 francs or 161 per cent; and if into Paris, it would have to pay no less than 220 francs or 366 per cent.[6]

The French at present deservedly rank as the best wine-makers in the world. The Champagne, Dr Henderson informs us, is divided into the river and mountain-wines; the former being for the most part white, and the latter red. By Champagne wine is generally understood a sparkling or frothing liquor. The district, however, furnishes many wines which do not effervesce; but those which effervesce slightly are the best. Among the white wines of Champagne, the first rank is usually assigned to those of Sillery, comprehending the produce of those vineyards which are situate

[6] The duties imposed by foreign States on French wine were in 1828:

By Sweden on every hogshead of red or white,			400 francs.
— Norway,	do.	do.	202
— Prussia,	do.	do.	520
— Russia,	do.	do.	750
— England,	do.	do.	1,200
— W. S.	do.	do.	189

at the north-eastern termination of the chain of hills that separates the Marne from the Vesle. It is a dry still liquor, of a light water colour, with considerable body, and a flavour somewhat analogous to that of the first growths of the Rhine. In general, it may be observed, that the vine-yards on the banks of the Marne supply the best river wines, and that they degenerate in proportion to the distance from that river; though this rule is not without exceptions. The vintages of Hautvilliers and Ay are the most esteemed. The price of vineyard land is very high, and has increased. An arpent, which is little more than an English acre, and which is estimated to produce 800 bottles, sells as high as about £600 and £700. Champagne wines, when placed in cool cellars, will retain their good qualities from 10 to 20 years. The vaults in which the stock is kept in France are excavated out of rock to the depth of 30 or 40 feet, where Fahrenheit's thermometer stands at 54 degrees, and varies from winter to summer only one degree. The prices of Champagne were at Epernay in 1822, from four francs, or 3*s.* 4*d.*, to five francs per bottle. The wine of Sillery was from five to six francs. Add the duty, which is for the tun of 252 gallons of French wine, £144 7*s.* 6*d.* This comes to 2*s.* 3½*d.* per bottle, which would make the wine, the cost of which in France is 4*s.* or 5*s.*, from 6*s.* 3*d.* to 7*s.* 3*d.* per bottle, exclusive of freight and other charges. The best growths are all consumed in France, and are in such request that they are seldom to be procured. The wines of Burgundy are produced in the greatest excellence in the departments of the Cote d'Or, Yonne, and Saone and Loire, or in Upper and Lower Burgundy. The choice red growths in the Cote d'Or are the Romanee Conti, Clos-Vougeot, Chambertin, Richebourg, Romanee de Saint Vivant, Tache, and St George. These, according to Mr Henderson, "are distinguished by their beautiful colour and exquisite flavour and perfume, combining in a greater degree than any other wines the qualities of lightness and delicacy with richness and fulness of body." The vineyards of Musigny, Clos de Premeau, Clos du Tart, Veroilles, Clos-Morjot, Clos St Jean, and Perriere, also furnish wines of nearly equal excellence; but the quantity being very limited they are little known out of Burgundy. The white wines of Burgundy are less numerous than the red, but maintain nevertheless the highest rank among the French white wines, and are not inferior to the red either in flavour or perfume. Two leagues and a half to the south-east of Beaune is grown the famous Mont Rachet wine, surpassing all the other white wines of the Cote d'Or, by its high perfume and agreeable nutty flavour. The choicest growths of Burgundy are very difficult to be procured, and are almost all consumed in France. Some wine obtained by M. Montmort from his vineyard at Fissin, near Dijon, which is said to surpass all the other growths of the Cote d'Or, has been sold on the spot at the enormous price of 12 francs or 10*s.* per bottle. The price of Chambertin and Romanee vintage, 1819, was at Beaune, 900 francs per puncheon of 250 gallons, which is about 3*s.* 4*d.* per bottle, add duty of 2*s* 3½*d.* per bottle, and the price will be 5*s.* 7½*d.* per bottle, exclusive of freight and other charges. These wines when old in bottle were sold in 1822 at five francs per bottle at Beaune. Of the red wines that are grown in the vicinity of Bordeaux, namely the claret, Mr Henderson remarks that "the Lafitte, Latour, Chateau Margaux, and Haut-Brion, are so greatly esteemed, that they always sell from 20 to 25 per cent. higher than any others of the province. The first mentioned is the most choice and delicate, and is characterised by its silky softness on the

palate, and its charming perfume, which partakes of the nature of the violet and the raspberry. The Latour has a fuller body, and, at the same time a considerable aroma, but wants the softness of the Lafitte. The Chateau-Margaux, on the other hand, is lighter, and possesses all the delicate qualities of the Lafitte, except that it has not quite so high a flavour. The Haut-Brion, again, has more spirit and body than any of the preceding, but is rough when new, and requires to be kept six or seven years in the wood; while the others become fit for bottling in much less time. In favourable years, the produce of Lafitte, Latour, and Chateau-Margaux, sells at from 3,000 to 3,300 francs the tun, which contains 242 gallons; and when they have been kept in the *chais* or vault, for six years, the price is doubled; so that, even at Bordeaux, a bottle of the best wine cannot be purchased at less than six francs." For more than fourteen centuries the wine most approved of in France was from the environs of Paris. The wines of Surenne, Ruel, and Montmorency, which are now considered the most common, and sold at the cheapest rate, were then served at the tables of the rich as a luxury. The brandies made in France are esteemed the best in the world, and are distilled in every part of the kingdom where vines are grown; in the distillation, not only wines of an inferior, but also those of the best quality are used. The brandies of Nantes, Cogniac, and Poitou, are the most esteemed of all the French brandies, as they have a finer taste, and are stronger. The English, Dutch, Flemish, and Hamburghers, take off the greatest part of these brandies. Vinegar is made in Provence, Guyenne, Orleannais, Anjou, Aunis, Brittany, &c. That of Orleans is esteemed the best. Cyder is made in most of those provinces whose climate is unfavourable to the grape. Normandy is particularly famous for this liquor, where they also make brandy of it. From the progress making in France in the manufacture of beet-root sugar, it appears that more importance is at present attached to that branch of commercial industry among our Gallic neighbours than during the period when Napoleon's continental system induced them to turn their thoughts to this substitute for the colonial article. The expensive process for the manufacture of beet-root sugar has till now been the cause which has kept up its price on a par with the sugar of West India growth; and, to diminish this, so far as finally to make the former more marketable, so that France may one day dispense with the foreign supply of an article of so paramount a necessity in that country, seems to engross the attention of land-owners, growers, refiners and chemists. The annual consumption of this sugar now amounts to between seven and eight million of pounds.

Manufactures.] Although France has been always most distinguished by the indigenous productions of her soil, yet she early attained such an eminence in manufactures and commerce, as to become not only the rival of Britain, but even for some time to enjoy the superiority. Her natural advantages for commerce were such as to entitle her to rank high among commercial nations; but, owing to many concurring causes, the manufactures and commerce of France have not kept pace with those of this country.

History of French Manufacture.] The earliest notice that we have of the manufactures of France occurs in St Jerome, who speaks of a manufacture of stuffs at Arras, much esteemed at that period, which was the 4th century. It is impossible to fix with precision the first establishment of the woollen manufactures in France. We know they were extensive and important in the beginning of the 14th century, from some

letters which still exist, in which the king of France expresses great anxiety to procure English wool at St Omers and Lisle. In 1346, the king of France, in order to detach the Flemings from the interest of king Edward, sent them French wool at a low price, and forbade his subjects to use any other while their cloth made of that wool was to be procured. That the manufactures of France flourished considerably in 1453 is evident from what historians relate of Jacques Coeur, who, by his loan of 200,000 crowns, enabled the king to expel the English. This merchant, at a time when trade was scarcely known in France, is said to havè employed 300 factors to manage his vast concerns, which extended to the Turks and Russians in the East, and the Saracens in Africa, at that time the most remote nations known to the European merchants. His exports consisted chiefly of woollens, linens, and paper, then the principal manufactures in France; and his returns were silks, spiceries, &c. The first regular attempt to establish the silk-manufacture was made by Francis I., who used great efforts to procure workmen from Milan while he possessed that duchy. The French soon made great progress in this manufacture, principally at Lyons and other parts of the south of France, whence many parts of Europe were supplied with silk goods. It was not, however, till long after this period that France began to raise raw silk from the worms. In the reign of Henry III. some attention was paid to manufactures; but articles of elegance and luxury were still imported from abroad. Troyes was the place where leather and parchment were first prepared with some degree of dexterity. The people of this place were likewise celebrated for the goodness of their dyes. The French were at this period very deficient in the manufacture of iron and steel as they procured their fire-arms from Lombardy. Charles IX. indeed, endeavoured to introduce among his soldiers musquets made at Metz and Abbeville, but they were so heavily and awkwardly made, that the attempt was abandoned. Italian manufactures were brought by the same monarch to Paris; whose armourers finished the head-pieces which were made and purchased at Milan. Gunpowder was made in France during the reign of Henry III.; but not in such quantities as to render the importation of it unnecessary. Genoa, in particular, supplied the French with gun-powder. The reign of Henry IV., and the administration of the great Sully, must be regarded as the first grand era of the manufactures of France. Sully, who was more friendly to agriculture than to commerce or manufactures, could not indeed fully enter into the views of his master, yet undoubtedly the monarch profited by the penetration and good sense of the minister. Henry erected temporary buildings at Fountainbleau, the castle of Madrid, and the Thuilleries, for rearing silk-worms, and caused mulberry-trees to be planted in various provinces where they had not been previously cultivated, especially in the vicinity of Paris, Orleans, and Tours. These measures, so far as respected the southern and central districts of the kingdom, were successful; but the attempt to rear the silk-worm as far north as Paris, proved abortive. The good effects of Henry's exertions and perseverance, however, appeared before his death. Lyons soon attracted the notice of foreigners, and was speedily enriched by the silk-manufacture; so much so that in seven years from its establishment, the southern provinces of Dauphiné, Languedoc, and Provence, are said to have derived from it greater annual profits than from the joint produce of their oil, wines, and sweet-meats, the natural and ancient products of the country. But the silk-manufacture was not the only object of Henry's attention. Gold and

silver tissues of various kinds and of exquisite beauty were manufactured at Paris, by Milanese weavers, whom Henry induced to settle under his immediate protection in the capital. The Gobelins' tapestry, of such unequalled delicacy, and so much admired over all Europe, was begun in one of the suburbs of Paris, under the direction of Flemish artisans. The manufacture of mirrors in imitation of those cast at Venice, which had been formerly attempted under Henry III., was again successfully revived at Paris and Nevers; and earthen-ware equalling the Italian in beauty was now fabricated.* Crapes equal to those of Bologna, were manufactured in the castle of Mantes upon the Seine; and the manufacture of linen was begun. Before this reign, iron had been cut and split by the hand; but mills for those purposes were now established on the river Estampes; and steel, which had been previously imported from Piedmont, began to be manufactured in the suburb of St Victor in Paris. Manufactures of gauzes and linens, as well as of woollen cloth and serges, were also encouraged and extended by Henry.

The second grand era of French manufacture and commerce, was the age of Louis XIV.; whose ambition and love of glory, though it led him to cause the destruction of myriads of his fellow-creatures, and to overleap the boundaries of justice, also induced him to patronise and encourage every species of literature, science, and art. It was his felicity, as well as that of his kingdom, to possess and enjoy the matured talents of the great Colbert, a Scotsman, afterwards created marquis of Seignelai, under whose administration France attained a height of military fame and grandeur unknown in the former periods of her history. The principal of the new manufactures that were either introduced, or established and extended in this era, were those of Sedan, Abbeville, the Gobelins, and the glass-manufacture of St Gobin. The manufacture of fine cloth at Sedan owed its origin and perfection to Nicolas Cadeau who had obtained a knowledge of the mode of manufacturing fine cloth practised in Holland. Entering into partnership with two rich Parisian merchants in 1646, they obtained a royal patent for the manufacture of woollen cloths, of every colour, that should be made after the fabric and manner of Dutch cloths; and to encourage them still more, each of them had a pension of 500 livres settled upon them for life, their children were ennobled, and their foreign weavers made denizens of France, free from being quartered on by soldiers, and from all taxes and excise. When the exclusive monopoly of Cadeau and his partners was on the point of expiring, a new proposal for commencing another manufacture of fine cloths at Abbeville, in imitation of those of Spain and Holland, was made by Vanrobais, a Dutch merchant. Colbert instantly acceded to the proposal, and Vanrobais being brought from Holland, was settled along with his workmen at Abbeville. Agreeably to the patent, 30 woollen looms were set on foot, with as many fulling mills as were deemed necessary. In 1708, the looms exceeded 100; and about 600 persons, men, women, and children, were employed upon the spot, in picking the wool, and winding, warping, weaving, and shearing the cloth. At this time, a fourth patent was granted, by which all noblemen were permitted, by the king, to enter into partnership, without derogation to their titles or honour; and that the sale of these and other French woollens might be encouraged in the Levant, money was advanced to the merchants of Marseilles, out of the royal treasury, to be repaid after the return of the ships from Turkey. The manufacture of

tapestry established by Henry IV. was revived with more success by Colbert; and obtained the name of *Gobelines*, because the house where the manufacture was carried on, was built by two brothers of that name who first brought to Paris the secret of the scarlet dye which has preserved their name. As Colbert had rebuilt and ornamented the royal palaces, particularly the Louvre and the Thuilleries, he was very anxious that they should be splendidly furnished. With this view he collected together some of the most able workmen in all sorts of manufactures and arts in France, especially painters, tapestry-weavers, goldsmiths, and workers in ebony. The tapestry-weavers were procured from Flanders; separate superintendents of the raised and of the smooth tapestries were appointed; and another Fleming was vested with the management of the wool-dyeing department. The manufacture of tapestry commenced in 1663, but did not flourish till 1666, when it was endowed with many privileges, and denominated in the edict, the Royal Manufactory of the Crown Furniture. The celebrated painter, Le Brun, was at length appointed chief director of the Gobelin manufactures; to which he communicated that beauty and grandeur which his admirable talents were so well-calculated to introduce. The tapestries were brought to a high degree of perfection during the administration of Colbert and Louvois. The glass-manufactures, introduced by Henry II. and Henry IV., were at length brought to perfection under Louis XIV.; and the glass of St Gobin was deemed superior to that of Venice both in quality and quantity. The progress of this manufacture was retarded at first from a scarcity of wood. The manufactory was, therefore, removed into the vicinity of an extensive forest, with the advantage of a river to save land-carriage. The whole is situated at the top of a small hill close to the village of St Gobin, near La Fere, in Picardy. The very white sand used in the manufacture is brought from the neighbourhood of Creil, a place 11 leagues distant from Paris. The glasses are sent by water to the capital, where they are polished and silvered. In 1685, different immunities were granted, by royal edict, to Noel de Varennes, in order to encourage him to carry on a manufacture of cloth in Languedoc, similar to that which was sent from London to Turkey. Louis appropriated the sum of a million of livres yearly, exclusive of all immunities from customs, to engage and reward skilful masters and artificers, who undertook to set up fabrics of cloth, silk, camel and goats' hair, crystal, and other commodities. In 1695, the tin-manufacture was settled in various parts of France, by Isaac Robelin, who obtained an exclusive patent for this purpose; and in 1703, the manufactures of serges, baizes, and perpits, which had been established after the union of the crowns of France and Spain, already rivalled those of England. The unjust and impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes gave a fatal blow to some of the most flourishing and lucrative manufactures of France; and may be said to have done them more harm than they had received benefit by all the measures of Louis in their favour. The people thus violently forced out of the kingdom were generally the best merchants, artificers, and manufacturers in the country. Those who had most money, retired into England and Holland; but the most industrious part of them settled in Brandenburg, where they introduced the manufactures of serge, cloths, druggits, crapes, caps, stockings, hats, and also the dyeing of all sorts of colours. The goldsmiths, jewellers, watch-makers, and carvers, settled in Britain, and to them England is indebted for her silk-manufac-

tures, and also for various improvements in manufacturing paper, hats, glass, watches, cutlery ware, jacks, locks, surgeons' instruments, and hardware. It is impossible to fix, with precision, the first introduction of the cotton-manufacture into France. It was carried on in Rouen, in Normandy, a considerable time previous to the middle of the 18th century, and is said to have been introduced by a Mr Holkar, probably an Englishman. Before the year 1747, the manufacture of cottons, or cotton-linens as they were then called, was established at Nantes in Brittany; where it was supposed that it would succeed better than at Rouen, as cotton, wool, and indigo, were cheaper. The most flourishing period of the French manufactures was from 1650 to 1750. Subsequently to the last period, several causes, but chiefly the rivalship of the English manufactures, proved unfavourable to them.

Woollen Manufactures.] We have seen that the fabrication of woollen was early introduced into France. It is only, however, of late years that the introduction of carding machines, and other ameliorations in the system of spinning and weaving, has placed woollen cloths at the command of the population in general. In 1812 the quantity of native wool manufactured in France was 35,000,000 of kilogrammes;[7] in 1826 it was 42,000,000 kilogrammes of native wool, and 4,500,000 of foreign wool. Much has been done to ameliorate the quality of the native fleeces: the heavy duty of 35 per cent. on the raw material amounting to nearly a prohibition of importation. M. Ternaux has introduced many improvements on the manufacture; and the best superfine blue cloths are now selling at Louviers for 40 francs the ell, very good being to be had at 20. The towns in the centre and south of France are also beginning to compete with the northern fabrics; and the flannels of Rheims, from their cheapness and durability, form an excellent article of clothing for the poor. In 1826 nearly 3,000 cashmere, and 41,000 woollen shawls, were exported from France. The carpets of the Gobelins and the Savonnerie, from the length of time required to perfect them, are seldom valued at less than £200 or £300 each; the next class are those of Aubusson and Felletin. The exportation of French cloth is diminishing in proportion to the decrease in the stock of foreign wool, as the following calculations will prove:

	Average of the years 1822 and 1823.	1826.
Imports of raw wool, in kilogr.	7,309,266	3,787,579
Manufactured do. . . .	59,082	22,674
Exports of raw wool, . .	505,932	492,451
Manufactured do. . . .	1,046,560	710,845

Silk-Manufactures.] Raw silk was imported for a long time into France after the introduction of the manufacture. Its main seat in France has always been at Lyons, where the rich and brilliant stuffs used chiefly for furniture are made, and in the neighbourhood of which also the ribbon-trade is carried on. The great mart of exhibition and sale is the metropolis. The value of the silk annually worked up in France may now be taken at about £6,000,000, and more than one-half of the raw material consumed is of native production. The china-worm has been naturalized in France, and the white French crapes now rival those of the East, so long unattainable in brilliance and purity. Since the peace, red and blue embroidered stuffs have been largely exported to Persia and Turkey. The quantity of silk-manufactures exported from France in 1826 was as follows:

[7] The kilogramme is equal to $2\frac{1}{5}$ English pounds avoirdupois.

Stuffs, . . .	366,176	kilogr.	Value	£1,757,644
Crapes and Gauzes, .	46,000	do.	do.	171,649
Ribbons, . . .	204,801	do.	do.	983,044
Shawls of Silk-wadding,	100,000	do.	do.	240,000
				£3,152,337

The official value of the raw and thrown silk imported into Great Britain in 1826 was £1,276,398; probably not more than double that quantity was worked up in France that year, so that our consumption may already equal one-half that of France, notwithstanding her long celebrity in this branch. Nay, during the last year we exported silk-twist and yarn to France to the value of £2,290.

Cotton-Manufactures.] The increase of the cotton-manufacture in France since the peace has been more rapid and striking than that of any other. Prior to 1786 Swiss cottons were generally used. About 1789 the average value of English cottons imported into France, at a duty we believe of 10 per cent. was about 25,000,000 francs, or rather more than £1,000,000, a very large proportion of which was of the finer fabrics. Napoleon's Continental system made it a matter of necessity for the French to resort to their own resources; and they so far succeeded that the quantity of cotton spun in 1812 was equal to the average of that spun in England in the ten years ending with 1797, thus bringing them to a station as important as that occupied by us 15 years before. Since that period, cotton-factories have spread widely through Picardy and Normandy. Rouen is the Manchester of France, and its proximity to Havre-de-Grace, the great American port, gives it the same advantage in point of situation as Manchester derives from being near Liverpool. It is computed that the cotton-trade of Rouen supports from 55,000 to 60,000 persons, and two of the spinning-houses have lately erected power-looms, though they cannot produce an article of calico which might sell in Britain for five pence, at less than seven pence a-yard. The corderoy and velveteen of Troyes are well-suited for labourers' clothing; Caen produces cambric-muslins equal to those of Switzerland; the ginghams from the Upper Rhine are stout and well-dyed, and the printed muslins of Versailles rival those of England. The works of Dupin and Blanqui, with the British official returns supply the following comparative tables:

RAW COTTON SPUN

	In Great Britain.	In France.
In 1812 . .	61,285,024 lbs. . . .	25,191,189
1820 . .	137,407,498	48,461,390
1826 . .	162,889,112 . . .	83,993,210

COTTON MANUFACTURES EXPORTED

	From Great Britain.			From France.
	Official value.	Declared value.		
In 1820	£20,704,600	£13,843,569	.	£1,091,300
1823	24,117,549	13,751,415	.	1,037,115
1826	21,445,565	10,522,357	.	1,457,855

The delicacy and perfection of the French cambrics have long been unrivalled. The French laces are made both of silk and thread. The point lace of Alençon has long enjoyed a great name throughout France, England, and Germany; as also, the point lace of Argentan. The cultivation of flax and hemp occupies about 350,000 acres. The best hides are those of the oxen of Auvergne, Limousin, and Poitou. The parchment made in France is esteemed the best in Europe. Hats are chiefly manufactured

at Lyons, Marseilles, and Paris. Straw-hats were until lately imported almost exclusively from Italy. Clocks and watches are made in different quarters of the kingdom, but chiefly at Paris. In this manufacture the Parisians are rivalling the Swiss. The French are known to be clever in the construction of surgical and mathematical instruments. In the capital, every article of this kind, as well as all sorts of expensive and tasteful toys, are carried to great perfection. China is principally manufactured at Sèvres, and enjoys a high degree of reputation. The glass-manufacture of St Gobin still retains its pre-eminence for large and beautiful mirrors, the price of which is within reach of moderate incomes. The crystal-manufactories in and near Paris are very numerous. French furniture is in general cheaper than ours. Dyeing is carried on to a great extent in the vicinity of the silk, woollen, linen, and cotton-manufactories. The waters of the Saone are excellent for scouring, possessing it is said a soapy quality. Those of the Rhone, being pure, are equally fitted for dyeing. The waters of the little river Sornin are also reckoned remarkably good for dyeing. Indeed, generally speaking, the superior excellence of the French cloths is supposed to result, in regard to colour, from the great purity of the waters used in dyeing. The machinery imported into France appears at present to be inconsiderable, the official returns for 1826 valuing it at £73,878, and the exportations at £54,036. To complete this exposé of the progress of the arts and manufactures of France, and their localities, we shall here insert the following table drawn up about eight years ago by M. Chaptal.

PRODUCTS.	CHIEF PLACES OF FABRICATION.	APPROXIMATIVE COMMERCIAL VALUE
Raw silks, ...	Lyon, St Vallier, St Donat, St Remy, Roquevaire, Alais, Tain, Tours, Tonilles,	107,560,000
Silk stuffs, ...	Lyon, Paris, Nîsmes, Tours, Avignon,	
Woollen manufactures,	Rheims, Paris, Autrecourt near Sedan,	
Fine cloths, ...	Sedan, Louviers, Beaumont-le-Roger, Elbeuf, Chalabre, Lodève, Vienne, St Chinian, St Pons, Carcassonne, Mazamet, Beauvais, Vire, ...	
Common cloths, . .	Castres, Montluel, Tours, Montauban, Châteauroux, ...	238,133,932
Kerseymeres, . . .	Louviers, Castres, Amiens, Limoges, Buhl,	
Flannels, ...	Reims, Orléans, Lisieux, ...	
Smooth stuffs, . . .	Villepreux near Versailles, Carcassonne, Reims, Réthel, Mende, Montauban,	
Duvet of cashmere,	Reims, Paris, ...	
Tapestries, ...	Paris, at the Gobelins; Aubusson, Beauvais, ...	
Hemp and flax fabrics,	St Quentin, Valenciennes, Cambray, Douai, Chauny, Guise, Beauvais, Rue-St Pierre, Laval, Rennes, Cholet, Lisieux, Voison, ...	242,796,012
Laces, ...	Alençon, Valenciennes, Chantilly, Bayeux, Caen, Nancy.	
Paper manufactures,	Annonay, Sorel, Saussaye, Marais, Courtalin, Angoulême, ...	21,000,000
Pasteboard, . . .	Vienne, Montauban, Nimes.	
	Carry forward, . . .	609,489,944

PRODUCTS.	CHIEF PLACES OF FABRICATION.	APPROXIMATIVE COMMERCIAL VALUE.
	Brought forward, ...	609,489,944
Cotton manufactures,	Lille, Roubaix, Gisors, St Quentin, Rouval, Vast near Valognes, La Ferté-Aleps, Logerbach, Paris, ...	
Calicoes, muslins, and other cotton articles, ...	Tarare, St Quentin, Alençon, Cateau-Cambrésis, Paris, Templeux, Rouen, Chemillé, Abbeville, Troyes. . . .	191,600,000
Trimmings, ...	Paris, etc.	7,000,000
Hats, ...	Paris, etc.	24,375,000
Dye stuffs, ...	Lyon, Paris, Bapaume, Gentilly, Déville, Rouen, Bart.	44,117,950
Tanned hides, . . .	Paris, Sens, Longjumeau, Troyes, St Aignau, Rennes, ...	143,392,600
Chamois skins, parchment, &c.	Paris, Grenoble, Niort, Milhau, Le Chaylard, ...	12,000,000
Morocco leather, . .	Paris, Toulouse, ...	
Forged iron, . . .	Grossoure, Vienne, St Bonnet-le-Désert, Vierzon, etc.	
Steel, ...	La Bérardière, near St Etienne; Arc, near Gray; Raveau, near La Charité; Orléans; forges of La Doué, near La Charité; Foix, Bèze.	
Brass and zinc, . .	Rouen, Paris, ...	
Plating, ...	Imphy, Pont-St Ours, Montataire, . .	207,390,377
Wires, ...	Laigle, Lods, Morvillards, Romilly, . .	
Tools, ...	Amboise, Toulouse, Arc, Foy, Genswiller, Klingenthal, ...	
Fire-arms, ...	Tulle, Paris, St Etienne, ...	
Swords, bayonets, &c.	Klingenthal, St Etienne, ...	
Hardwares, ...	Paris, Strasbourg, Châlons-sur-Marne, Thiers, Châtellerault, Langres. . .	
Copper, ...	Romilly, Imphy, Rouen, Toulouse, Paris,	16,171,260
Lead, ...	Paris, Tours, &c.	4,830,460
Antimony, platina, mercury, &c.	Paris, &c.	4,000,000
Jewelry, ...	Paris, ...	38,000,000
Bronzes, ...	Paris, ...	35,000,000
Varnish, ...	Paris, ...	5,000,000
Clocks and watches,	Beaucourt, St Nicolas-d'Aliermont, Besançon, Montbéliard, ...	17,500,000
Fine watches, . . .	Paris, ...	19,000,000
Musical instruments,	Paris, ...	2,000,000
Salt, ...	Salt-pits of L'Orient, the islands Oléron and Rhé, Peccais, &c.	2,000,000
Alum, ...	Paris, Pouilly, Montpellier, ...	6,000,000
Copperas, ...	Choisy-le-Roi, Mas-d'Azil near Pamiers, ...	3,000,000
Sulphuric acid, . .	Paris, &c.	6,000,000
Muriatic acid, . . .	Paris, &c.	240,000
Nitric acid, aqua fortis, &c.	Montpellier, Paris, &c.	1,200,000
Hard soaps, . . .	Paris, Marseille, ...	30,000,000
	Carry forward, ...	1,429,307,591

PRODUCTS.	CHIEF PLACES OF FABRICATION.	APPROXIMATIVE COMMERCIAL VALUE
	Brought forward, ...	1,429,307,591
Soft soaps, ...	Lille, Amiens, Abbeville, St Quentin,	3,000,000
Refined sugar, . . .	Paris, and the dep. of the North, for beet root sugar, ...	55,138,910
Molasses, ...	*Ditto*.	5,685,000
Porcelain, ...	Paris, Sevres, Limoges, ...	5,000,000
Pottery, ...	Sarreguemines, Creil, Montereau, . .	6,000,000
Common pottery, . .	Sarreguemines, ...	15,000,000
Bricks, tiles, . . .	Lyon, Montel near Charolles, Anisy, Nibelles near Orleans, ...	17,500,000
Plaster, chalk, . . .	Environs of Paris, &c.	15,000,000
Glass work, . . .	St Gobin, St Quirin, Monthermé, Cirey, Montcenis, Bacara, ...	20,500,000
Cabinet work, . . .	Paris, ...	41,000,000
Printing, ...	Paris, Lyon, Avignon, (1,550 presses in activity), ...	19,409,096
Perfumery, ...	In the South, ...	13,000,000
Starch manufactures,	Paris, ...	6,000,000
Cyder and Perry, . .	Normandy, Bretagne, Picardy, . . .	48,622,435
Beer, ...	Principally in the North, ...	47,635,377
Brandy, ...	Cogniac, Montpellier, ...	55,000,000
	Total, Francs, ...	1,802,798,409
	Or about,	£75,116,600 ster.

Patents.] We observe in the *Moniteur* a list of patents taken out for new inventions or improvements upon existing machinery in France, from the commencement of the Revolution down to the present time. This list is remarkable as showing the comparative inactivity of inventive genius and industrious enterprise during the reign of terror, or the oppressions of despotism, and their sudden revival on the return of internal peace and social security. The following is the enumeration to which we have alluded:—In 1791 there were taken out 34; in 1792, 29; in 1793, 4; in the year 1794, 4; in 1795, 5; in 1796, 8; in 1797, 4; in 1798, 10; in 1799, 22; in 1800, 16; in 1801, 34; in 1802, 29; in 1803, 45; in 1804, 44; in 1805, 63; in 1806, 74; in 1807, 66; in 1808, 63; in 1809, 52; in 1810, 93: in 1811, 66; in 1812, 96; in 1813, 98; in 1814, 53; in 1815, 77; in 1816, 115; in 1817, 162; in 1818, 153; in 1819, 138; in 1820, 151; in 1821, 170; in 1822, 175; in 1823, 187; in 1824, 217; and in the first six months of 1825, 161.

Commerce.] The average of the total importations into France during the three years preceding 1790, was 613,543,336 francs, and that of the exportations 448,781,600. Colbert reckoned that in 1669 France employed only 600 ships in foreign commerce; and it is asserted by an anonymous English author, that in 1740 there were at that time in France not more than 600 merchant-ships; and that all the seamen of France did not exceed 30,000, including 11,000 sailors classed by the king as belonging to the navy, but who had leave of serving in merchant vessels till they were wanted by his majesty. At the Revolution, the number of ships employed in long voyages, amounted to 1,000, averaging 250 tons each; and the exports to different European States employed 580,000 tons of shipping, of which, however, little more than ¼th, or 152,000 tons, were

French. The whole number of vessels that, in 1792, entered the ports of France, were, according to Roland, 7,607, carrying 639,225 tons; of which, 1,823 vessels, or 147,821 tons, were French; 1,910, or 145,012 tons, were English; and 3,344 vessels, or 346,402 tons, belonged to other nations. And there cleared out in the same year 8,618 vessels, or 544,935 tons; of which 1,940 ships, or 147,400 tons, were French; 3,111 vessels, or 90,652 tons, were English; and 3,567 vessels, or 306,863 tons, belonged to other nations. The *Moniteur* furnishes a comparative list of the shipping which sailed from the ports of France to foreign countries in the two years of 1825 and 1826. In the former, the number of vessels amounted to 9,902, the tonnage of which was 754,751; and in the latter, they are stated at 8,897, with a tonnage of 788,417. French vessels and foreign vessels trading to French ports, appear from the above account to be much smaller in their tonnage than British, the former not averaging 90 tons and the latter upwards of 120. The table in the *Moniteur* specifies the quantity of this shipping which belongs to the French ship-owners, and that which is navigated under a foreign flag. The latter nearly doubles the former, being in 1825 as 400,440 tons to 247,264; and in 1826 as 412,672 to 228,719. The number of seamen employed in navigating the French commercial navy is stated, in 1825, at 25,687; and in 1826, at 22,551. This is exclusive of the trade of France with her colonies, which employed, in 1825, 439 ships, measuring 107,047 tons; and in 1826, 542 vessels, with 127,026 tons. The seamen engaged in this branch of commerce are stated, in the above years respectively, to be 6,413 and 7,668. This statement indicates a great improvement in the French colonial trade within the short space of a twelvemonth. In comparing this account of the shipping of France with that of England and of the United States of America, we both discover the great disproportion between the extent of the trade of the latter two countries and the former, and likewise the great difference between the quantity of home and foreign vessels employed in each. The whole of the tonnage employed in the foreign commerce of France did not amount, in 1825, to a half of that employed by the United States, and to little more than a fourth of that employed by this country; and while about half the commerce is transacted by foreigners, only one-third of that of Great Britain, and one-tenth of that of our trans-Atlantic brethren, is engrossed by foreign bottoms. We subjoin the following calculation of the French imports and exports, reduced into sterling money:—

	Francs.			
1826—Value of goods imported into France,	564,725,610	£23,530,354	11	8
Ditto exported, ditto, . . .	560,505,769	23,354,532	0	10
Excess of imports, . . .	4,219,841	£175,822	10	10
In 1826, 542 French ships exported to the Colonies, ...	62,954,413	£2,623,100	10	10
443 ships imported, . . .	61,072,326	2,544,680	5	0
Excess of exports to Colonies, .	1,882,087	£78,420	5	10

It appears, from the preceding extracts, that in 1826 the sum-total of the French imports amounted to £23,530,354 11s. 8d. sterling; whilst the whole of the exports amounted only to £23,355,532 0s. 10d.; giving an excess of imports of £175,822 10s. 10d. over the exports of that year. The *Moniteur* labours hard, to console the French nation for a result,

usually considered as highly disadvantageous and detrimental to the commercial pursuits of a nation, and with this view gives a comparison of the colonial trade of France, from whence it is made to appear that in this branch, the balance of trade inclines the other way, and is considerably in favour of France, as, during the same year, 542 French ships exported goods to the colonies amounting to £2,613,100 10s. 10d. sterling, whilst the imports into France in 443 ships, from the colonies, amounted to only £2,544,680 5s. sterling, leaving an excess of £78,420 5s. 10d. of exports over imports. The French importation and exportation, upon the whole, appear to us much more important in amount, than the public was in general aware of, especially when due regard is had to the comparative value of money in both countries, and when we consider that the trade of France rests almost entirely on the basis of a metallic circulation, estimated at nearly one hundred millions sterling, without any considerable admixture of paper-currency, exchequer bills, or other transferable government securities. According to the official accounts published by the board of customs, the general result of the foreign commerce of France last year was as follows:—*Arrived*, 3,350 French ships, measuring together 353,102 tons, with cargoes of the value of 230,140,293f. Under foreign flags, 3,959 ships, measuring 408,873 tons, value of the cargoes 111,626,559f. 480 tiers, measuring 60,636 tons, value 24,415,448f.; by land, 199,621,926f.—Total, 565,804,228f. *Sailed.* French ships, 3,522, measuring 3,046,370 tons, value of the cargoes 235,129,660f. Under foreign flags, 4,141, measuring 346,733 tons, value of cargoes 167,728,165f. 1,180 tiers, measuring 93,108 tons, value of cargoes 42,776,166f.; by land 156,767,385f.—Total, 602,301,276f. The amount of coin could not be precisely calculated. As far as can be collected, the result was—imported, 68,869,018f.; exported, 31,471,931f.

Monies.] Accounts were formerly kept in livres; the present mode of keeping accounts is in francs of 100 centimes each. Five centimes = 1 sou; 20 sous = one franc or livre. In hasty calculations it is customary to regard the franc as worth 10d. British currency; but the British sovereign is worth 25 francs 20 centimes. The silver-coins most in use are the piece of 5 francs, the piece of 3 francs, and the piece of 50 centimes. The gold-coins most in use are the Napoleon or new Louis, worth 20 francs; the double Napoleon, worth 40 francs; and the old Louis, worth 23 francs, 50 centimes. Within the last thirty years, France has coined in gold and silver to the value of 2,447,924,164 francs, or about £98,000,000 sterling. Her annual coinage does not now amount to £2,000,000 sterling.

Weights and Measures.] During the republican government, a system of uniform weights and measures was established on a simple plan: the elementary measure being connected with the dimensions of the terraqueous globe. This measure, which is called *métré*, that is a measure *par excellence*, is the ten-millionth part of a quarter of the terrestrial meridian, that is, of the distance of the equator from the pole, and is equal to 3 feet $\frac{41}{100}$ inches. The *arc* serves to measure the surface of the soil, in the same manner as the *arpent;* it is equal to 100 square métrés, or 948 feet $\frac{33}{100}$ inches. The *stéré* is equal to a cubic métré, or $\frac{2027}{10000}$ feet cubic. The *litré* is the measure of capacity; it is equal to a cubic decimétré, or 50$\frac{43}{100}$ cubic inches, or 1-20th of the former pint of Paris. The *grammé* marks the weight; it is equal to the weight of a cubic centimétré of pure water, at its maximum of density. It has been found equal to 18$\frac{827}{1000}$ French grains, of which, 5$\frac{76}{1000}$ grains make 4$\frac{725}{1000}$ English grains; and

489$\frac{558}{1000}$ grammés make a pound of the standard of the mint of Paris. These 5 primitive measures, viz. métrés, arcs, sterés, litrés, and grammés, are successively multiplied or divided by 10, in order to form the greater or smaller measures, analogous to the decimal system of arithmetic. The three divisors are *déci*, *cento*, and *milli:* expressing the 10th, 100th, and 1000th part. Thus, *decimétré* is the 10th part of the métré, *déciarc* the 10th part of the arc, &c. The four multiplicators are *deca*, *hecta*, *kilio*, and *myria*, denoting 10 times, 100 times, 1000 times, and 10,000 times: thus, the *decimétré* is 10 métrés, the *hectare* 100 arcs, the *kiliométré* 1000 métres, the *myria grammé* 10,000 grammés.

CHAP. IV.—POPULATION—NATIONAL CHARACTER—LANGUAGE—LITERATURE—RELIGION.

The French empire, in 1812, previous to the invasion of Russia, had a population of 43,000,000 of souls, including Holland and the German departments ; besides, 6,400,000 in the kingdom of Italy, and 1,500,000 in the Illyrian provinces. According to the official returns for 1827, the total population of the present French empire, including Corsica, is 31,851,545. Of this number about two-thirds are engaged in agriculture ; the other third comprehends about 4,300,000 artizans, and 5,300,000 merchants, public functionaries, and individuals devoted to liberal professions. According to the tables inserted in the *Annuaire*, published by the Bureau des Longitudes, the mean annual number of births in France, in the eight years between 1817 and 1824, was 961,145 ; that of deaths, 761,326 ; and that of marriages 225,658. During the same period the number of male-births exceeded that of female-births by about one-fifth. It also appears from the same tables that nearly one-fourth of the infants born in France die in their first year, and one-third do not reach the age of two years.[9] It appears from the calculations of M. C. Dupin, that a

[9] It appears from M. Fourrier's very curious investigation on the changes which have taken place on the laws of mortality in France during the last half-century, that whereas formerly out of 100 infants who were born, 50 died within the first two years, now, only 38$\frac{3}{10}$ths die out of the same number in that period. There can be no doubt that this striking difference in the mortality of infants is attributable to vaccination, and to the improvement in the general condition of the poor. In all the other stages of life the comparison is invariably in favour of the present day. Thus formerly, of 100 children, 55$\frac{5}{10}$ths died before they reached 10 years of age,—now only 43$\frac{7}{10}$ths die within that time ; formerly only 21$\frac{5}{10}$ths men out of 100 arrived at the age of 50,—now 32$\frac{4}{10}$ths arrive at that age; formerly one individual died annually out of 30,—now only one dies out of 39. At present, however, only one birth takes place annually in 31 persons, while formerly one took place in 25. A similar diminution occurs in marriages ; formerly the calculation was one in 111 persons,—now it is only one in 135. The fertility of marriages, however, has not altered,—the average product of each union is nearly 4 children. Although it thus appears that there are in proportion to the population, fewer marriages and fewer children born than formerly, yet the population rapidly increases, because a greater number of the children become men, and because a greater number of the men live to an old age. According to Dupin, the population of France is increasing at the rate of about 200,000 annually. The following is the movement of the population in France at two periods ; the first being calculated at an average of 10 years,—and the second at an average of 8.

	In 1790.	In 1825
Population,	24,800,000	30,400,000
Deaths,	818,490	761,230
Births,	963,200	957,970
Marriages,	213,770	224,570
Natural children,	20,180	75,760

singular diminution in the height of the French has taken place since the Revolution. According to the returns presented to the Chambers in 1826, by the minister of war, it seems, that out of 1,033,422 youths, who appeared before the councils of revision, there were 380,213 rejected, because they did not even reach the low stature of four feet ten inches (five feet one inch and four-fifths of an inch English.) This curious fact led him to examine the cause of this diminution in size of the French race, which he states to be the wars of the Revolution, because they cut down more particularly the virile part of the population; and also the inferior food of the working classes. The extreme repugnance which these classes yet manifest for vaccination, the imprudent liberality with which hospitals for foundlings have been endowed, and the numerous facilities of support afforded to poor or seduced mothers, have also appeared to M. Dupin positive causes of the enfeebling of the present generations. A glance at the table already inserted will show that the comparative population of the French departments corresponds to the comparative industry of the districts. Thus, omitting the capital, the departments of Nord, Rhône, Haut and Bas-Rhin, and Seine-Inférieure, are at once the most populous and the most industrious; while those of Basses and Hautes-Alpes, Landes, and Lozère, are, on the contrary, the most thinly inhabited, and the least productive. The average produce of the hectare around Paris is 216 francs; in the neighbourhood of Lyons it is 45; and in that of the Seine-Inférieure, 68; in the Gironde it is 32; in the Bouches-du-Rhône 27; and upon an average for the whole kingdom 28.

The population of France consists of French, Germans, Cimmerians, or, as they are also called, Bas-Bretons, Basques, and Italians; to whom may be added Jews, Gypsies, and Cagots. 1*st*. The *French* tribe amounts to about 25,500,000. They are derived from the Celts or Gauls, the Romans, and the Franks, but principally from the latter. Their language is the principal language of the country, and is very generally understood and spoken by well-educated people throughout the whole of Europe. It has many and very different dialects. In appearance and character the French inhabitants of the different provinces, particularly those of the north and south, differ very much from one another. The French of the south are a much more ardent, irritable, and impetuous race than those of the north. That liveliness and cheerfulness for which the French are proverbially remarkable, are found in the most eminent degree in the Provençalls, whose piercing black eyes, and highly animated features, are the faithful index of their character. 2*d*. The *Bretons*, or *Bas-Bretons*, amounting to about 920,000 in Lower Brittany, are descended from the British Cimmerians, who, in the 5th century, were driven from Great Britain by the Anglo-Saxons, and settled in this part of France, to which they gave their name. They still speak the ancient British or Cimmerian language, and are distinguished from the French, by their appearance, manners, customs, and dress. Their features indicate a phlegmatic disposition; but for honesty, benevolence, and hospitality, the true Bas-Bre-

Mortality of Different Ages.

	In 1780.	In 1825.
From birth to 10 years of age, ...	55 in 100	43 in 100
Ditto. 50 ditto.	78 in 100	67 in 100
Ditto. 60 ditto.	85 in 100	76 in 100
Proportion of Deaths, ...	1 to 30	1 to 39
Ditto. Births, ...	1 to 23	1 to 55
Ditto. Marriages, ...	1 to 111	1 to 135

ton is proverbial. It must be confessed, however, that superstition, ignorance, and a general dislike of innovation, are prominent features in their character, and that they must be regarded as some centuries behind the rest of their countrymen in civilization. They live mostly in hamlets or isolated farms. Their houses, or rather huts, are very dirty, and their agriculture is wretchedly bad; nevertheless the Breton is quite happy with his milk and oat-cakes. *3d.* The *Germans* amount to nearly 3,000,000, being in part Walloons. The Germans inhabit Alsace, the Suntgau, and a part of Lorraine. They are very much attached to their own language, manners, and dress; but a great part of them speak the Lorraine *patois*, or the Roman-French dialect, and French is generally used in the towns. The German which is spoken in France is extremely corrupt; and as it approaches the south becomes more and more similar to the Swiss dialects. In the middle parts of the Alsace it is almost entirely the old Suabian of the middle ages, and a multitude of old German words, now obsolete in the present German language, have been preserved here. The Walloons in the departments of Nord and Pas de Calais speak Flemish; but in the towns French is almost every where predominant. *4th.* The *Basques*, the descendants of the ancient Cantabrians, amount to about 108,000 individuals, chiefly located at the foot and in the valleys of the Pyrenees, where they have preserved their language and national dress. Honesty and valour are characteristic features of the Basques. The French dialect of Gascoigne is also intermixed with Basque words. *5th.* The *Italians*, amounting to nearly 200,000 individuals, are chiefly confined to Corsica; a considerable number of them are Savoyards, who wander through the whole of France. The Corsicans speak Italian; but the language has been greatly corrupted by them, particularly in the mountains, where it is mixed with many Moorish expressions. The common people are still in a state of barbarity, and civilization is in its infancy. The men are in general strong and well-made. The Corsicans are good soldiers; but extremely proud, ambitious, and vindictive. In dress and furniture they exhibit great simplicity; a table, a few benches, and one bed, in which the whole family sleep, frequently constitute the whole furniture of the Corsican peasant. They are in general dirty in their dress; but a pleasant feature in their character is their hospitality. *6th.* The French *Jews* are little different from their brethren in other countries, but enjoy in France full civil rights, They amount to about 60,000. *7th.* There are about 10,000 *Gypsies* in the Pyrenees and on the Rhine and Moselle, who now, with a very few exceptions, lead a settled life. *8th.* The *Cagots* or *Cahots* live in scattered families in the mountains of Bigorre, and in the western parts of France. They are the degenerate remnants of an ancient tribe whose origin can no longer be traced.

National Character.] If it is difficult for rival nations to see each other's character through a just and true medium, and to delineate with precision, and describe with accurate impartiality its principal and distinctive features, this circumstance must still be allowed to operate forcibly, when speaking of the French nation, whom from earliest years, our education, our national history, and our national songs, have accustomed us to view as our hereditary enemies. And when we take into consideration the effects produced upon such prejudices by a war of twenty-three years' continuance, a war the most obstinate and sanguinary, and in which the malevolent passions of our common nature were brought into their full play, the task of truth becomes harder still.

We are now better able to talk fairly and impartially of France and Frenchmen; so much intercourse now exists between the two nations, that we are daily becoming more truly acquainted with each other. We are not aware, however, that there is much exaggeration in the following sketch of the French national character, which appeared some years ago in the *Edinburgh Encyclopædia:* "An excessive mobility and a perpetual restless activity, produced by an exuberance of animal spirits, form the essential ingredients of French character. They are quick, ingenious, fertile in expedients, buoyant against difficulty or adversity: but mutable, trifling, confident, vain, credulous, and incapable of moderation. With much that renders them amiable in society,—as readiness to oblige, delicate attentions, kind sympathy, and lively sensibility,—they are often of insecure commerce, from laxity of principle, unmeaning professions, jealous irritability, and a strong propensity for intrigue. Their feelings of every kind verge to excess; and there is nothing materially good or bad of which they are not capable under the influence of their impetuous ardour. The French are, beyond all example, the creatures of society; by it their manners and sentiments are fashioned, and in it are centred their chief pleasures and gratifications. They would excel all other nations in the art of conversation, were not the desire of shining too universal. The love of glory operates upon them with extraordinary force, and stimulates them to great exertions; but it is often attended with empty ostentation and gasconade." We think this sketch substantially correct. No man appears to have studied and understood the French character better than Buonaparte, who, by a dexterous adaptation of conduct and manners admirably suited to their darling propensities, contrived to consolidate his usurped government so strongly that it required all his own rashness to undermine it. The passion for national glory is so strong and so universal, that, if it be but gratified, Frenchmen will submit to any suffering. This was strikingly exhibited in the reign of the late emperor. Did the people ask for bread? he showed them a temple. Did they require of him the blood of their children so wantonly and profusely shed? he detailed to them a victory, and they retired, satisfied that if they suffered or wept, France was rendered illustrious and victorious. For this they bore the heavy yoke of a military despotism, and an annual conscription. For this they followed their warlike chief through the barren sands of Prussia, the impervious forests of Poland, and the frozen wilds of Russia. It was this that filled the armies of France with myriads of ardent warriors, who, identifying the glory of their emperor with that of their country, rushed into the field, and gallantly faced death in every dreadful form. Their national vanity is conspicuous; and may be mortified but cannot be cured. It appeared in a striking light after the first capture of Paris, when they endeavoured to disguise from themselves the humiliation to which they had been subjected. The mild conduct of the Allies at that period was construed by this passion into a respectful dread of the spirit of the grand nation; and when the Allies were gone, the Parisians began to talk big, and say to strangers: "You know, we were not conquered? The reception of the king was wholly a voluntary act of our's. It was only by dint of numbers, and the treachery of Marmont, that ever the Allies got to Paris, or entered the capital." It was this national vanity that buoyed them up under every adversity. It was this that attributed the loss of half-a-million of men, and all the disasters of the Russian campaign, entirely to

the frost. It was this that ascribed the defeat at Leipsic to Saxon desertion, the ignorance of a corporal, and the want of cannon-shot; and it was the same national vanity that ascribed the loss of the battle of Waterloo,—not to the cool bravery, and the firm nervous courage of the British,—but entirely to the unskilful and presumptuous rashness of that very man whom the same people, in the day of his prosperity, had regarded as a hero far surpassing Hannibal and Frederick. Their character has been long known for volatility, insincerity, and restless activity. In this last particular, the studied ubiquity of Buonaparte admirably suited them. He contrived to multiply himself, as it were, in their eyes by his wonderful mobility; now galloping along a line of troops;—now alone, or with a single aid-de-camp, inspecting some public building,—in another quarter beheld in his carriage,—and, again found sauntering in the gallery of the Louvre, viewing the pictures and statues. Burke observed that to suit the restless activity of Frenchmen a restored king ought to spend six hours a day on horseback; and Ney advised Louis to review the troops as they passed through Paris, even though it were in a litter. It was this extreme mobility, combined with ferocity, which occasioned the sarcastic remark of Voltaire: "That the character of a Frenchman is composed of the tiger and the monkey." And Volney—himself a Frenchman—in his view of the American States, has declared that "of all foreigners, the French are the most unqualified to become settlers in that quarter of the world from their excessive love of society, their propensity to incessant chattering, and the dreadful state of *ennui* to which a Frenchman is reduced when removed from the buzz and flutter of a crowd." This habitual carelessness—this utter unconcern for the future, and want of reflection on the past,—makes them appear, in the eyes of foreigners, the happiest people in the world; and has enabled them to pass with ease from one political change to another. Conscious of this national propensity, the different revolutionary governments always took special care to provide them with amusements and shows; and Buonaparte in particular excelled all his predecessors in dexterously accommodating himself to this frivolity of character. Even all the violent revolutions that have taken place, never seemed to affect the national gaiety; amid all the scenes of revolutionary carnage, Paris continued to be one of the happiest cities in the world. While the screams of massacre resounded in some parts of the city; in others, actors and mountebanks were performing to crowded theatres, and nothing was heard but sounds of pleasure. In Paris alone, the theatres which are open every night, Sabbath evenings not excepted—support 15,000 families. Dancing has ever been a favourite national amusement; and although we cannot acquiesce in the etymological reverie of Sidonius Apollinaris, in deriving the name of the Salian Franks,—the ancestors of the modern French—from the Latin *salire*, 'to leap,' because they were a dancing and leaping people; yet it may seem extremely well-adapted to the present Franks, who excel all other nations in this frivolous art. With us, it is only an amusement; but in France, it seems to be an employment. With us, dancing is confined to the early period of youth, and is seldom thought of or practised in connubial life; but with the French, the passion continues till the end of the chapter of mortal existence. The vice of gambling too—which, we must own, prevails in our capital to a great extent—reigns in all its glory at Paris; and the number of gaming-houses is immense. This grand source of public demoralization was openly countenanced and encouraged by the different

revolutionary governments, as it afforded a source of revenue to the State; and it still yields about £250,000 of annual revenue. The Palais Royale, founded in 1629 by Cardinal Richelieu, is still the grand focus of this fertile source of every misery and crime. Mr Scott, who visited Paris in 1814; and saw the vortex of frivolity and dissipation in which its inhabitants are constantly whirled, says: "The Palais Royale now presents the most characteristic feature of Paris; it is dissolute, gay, wretched, elegant, paltry, busy, and idle,—it suggests recollections of atrocity, and supplies sights of fascination,—it displays virtue and vice living on easy terms, and in immediate neighbourhood of each other. Excitements, indulgencies, and privations,—art and vulgarity,—science and ignorance,—artful conspiracies, and careless debaucheries,—all mingle here, forming an atmosphere of various exhalations,—a whirl of the most lively images—a stimulating *melange* of what is most heating, intoxicating, and subduing." Sir Walter Scott, who visited Paris after its second capture, uses still stronger language concerning the rage for gambling displayed at Paris: "The Palais Royale, (says he,) in whose saloons and porticoes vice has established a public and open school for gambling and licentiousness, far from affording, as at present, an impure and scandalous source of revenue to the State, should be levelled to the ground, with all its accursed brothels and gambling-houses—rendezvouses the more seductive to youth as being free from some of those dangers which would alarm timidity in places of avowedly scandalous resort. Gaming is, indeed, reduced to all the gravity of a science; and, at the same time, is conducted upon the scale of the most extensive manufacture. In the *Sallon des Etrangers* the most celebrated haunt of this Dom-Daniel, which I had the curiosity to visit, the scene was decent and silent to a degree of solemnity. An immense hall was filled with gamesters and spectators. Those who kept the bank and managed the affairs of the establishment were distinguished by the green shades which they wore to preserve their eyes, by their silent and grave demeanour, and by the paleness of their countenances exhausted by their continual vigils. There was no distinction of persons, nor any pass-port required for entrance, save that of a decent exterior; and, on the long tables, which were covered with gold, an artisan was at liberty to hazard his week's wages, or a noble his whole estate. Youth and age were equally welcome; and any one who chose to play within the limits of a trifling sum, had only to accuse his own weakness if he was drawn into deeper or more dangerous hazard. Every thing seemed to be conducted with perfect fairness; and, indeed, the mechanical construction of the EO tables, or whatever they were called, appears calculated to prevent the possibility of fraud. The only advantage possessed by the bank—which is, however, enormous—is the extent of the funds, by which it is enabled to sustain any reverse of fortune; whereas, most of the individuals who play against the bank are in circumstances to be ruined by the first succession of ill luck; so that, ultimately, the small ventures merge in the stock of the principal adventurers, as rivers run into the sea. The profits of the establishment must, indeed, be very large to support its expenses. Besides a variety of attendants, who distribute refreshments to the players gratis, there is an elegant entertainment, with expensive wines, regularly prepared about three o'clock in the morning, for those who choose to partake of it. With such temptations around him, and where the hazarding an insignificant sum seems at first venial or innocent, it is no wonder that thousands feel themselves gradually involved in the vortex,

whose verge is so little distinguishable, until they are swallowed up, with their time, talents, fortune, and frequently also, both body and soul. This is vice with her fairest vizard; but the same unhallowed precinct contains many a secret cell for the most hideous and unheard of debaucheries,—many an open rendezvous of infamy, and many a den of usury and treason: the whole mixed with a vanity-fair of shops for jewels, trinkets, and baubles, that bashfulness may not need a decent pretext for adventuring into the haunts of infamy. It was here that the first preachers of Revolution found, amidst gamblers, desperadoes, and prostitutes, ready auditors of their doctrines, and active hands to labour in their vineyard. In more recent times, it was here that the plots of the Buonapartists were adjusted, and the number of their partisans instructed concerning the progress of the conspiracy; and from hence the seduced soldiers, inflamed with many a bumper to the health of the exile of Elba, under the mystic names of Jean de l'Epee, and corporal Violet, were dismissed to spread the news of his approaching return, and prepare their comrades to desert their lawful sovereign. In short, from this central pit of Acheron, in which are openly assembled and mingled those characters and occupations which in all other capitals are driven to shroud themselves in separate and retired recesses,—from this focus of vice and treason, have flowed forth those waters of bitterness of which France has drunk so deeply. Why, after having occasioned so much individual and public misery, this source of iniquity is not now stopped, the tenants expelled, and the buildings levelled to the ground, is a question which the consciences of the French ministers can best answer; thus far it is certain, at least, that if the disorders of France can be traced to a want of principle and moral character, it cannot be well to maintain among the people, for the sake of sharing its polluted profits, such a hot-bed of avowed depravity." The French, and especially the Parisians, were so accustomed since the Revolution to a total disregard of the Sabbath, that the attempt of Louis XVIII. to enforce its strict observance made him unpopular with his new subjects. So enraged were the Parisians at the royal mandate for shutting up the shops, exhibitions, theatres, gaming-houses, and prohibiting labour on that day, that they cried out: "Buonaparte never did any thing half so tyrannical as this!" It was one of the first acts of Buonaparte, after his return, to annul this decree. "All the merchants," said the *Moniteur* of 23d March 1815—"rejoice that they are no longer obliged to shut their shops on Sunday. Trade will no longer be shackled; and the workman, who has no other day but this to make his little purchases, will no longer be obliged to sacrifice a part of his time devoted to labour for this purpose." It required the terrors of the guillotine, in 1793, to compel the merchants to do what without compulsion they rejoiced to perform in 1815. The reduction of marriage to a state of decent and legal concubinage, from which the parties can free themselves at pleasure, has sapped the basis of the connubial structure and of the social affections in France. Marriage is there little else than a mere temporary connexion. The following is the system of divorce in France. If either the man or woman wish to be divorced, they must give notice of it to the prefect, and six months' time is necessary before it takes place; in the interim the necessary arrangements for the maintenance of the children are made, which are as follows:—The girls are generally consigned to the care of the mother, and the boys to the father; a very minute investigation takes place of the father's or mother's fortune, so that the children are certain of being provided for. If a man

is rich, and is the party that sues for the divorce, he must return half of his wife's jointure, and settle a maintenance on her for life. If a woman sues for the divorce, the wife must return every article of presents she has received from her husband, even before marriage. The woman is not compelled, however, to maintain her husband after divorce, but must her children. If the father remarries, and has heirs by his last marriage, the children by the former wife have the same claims to the patrimony as the others. The dreadful state of morality in France must be owing to a general destitution of religious and moral principles, and those salutary restraints which arise from the presence of such principles. It would be unfair, however, to infer that such a state of things wholly originated in the Revolution. That event evidenced and increased the moral distemper, but did not produce it. The seeds of infidelity and immorality had been for a long time germinating in the soil of the national character, and had taken firm hold of the public mind; and the moment that all legal restraints were removed out of the way by the Revolution, the disease was fully manifested in all its loathsome deformity.

State of Crime.] Intimately connected with the state of social morals in a country is the state of crime. Yet in this respect France furnishes a favourable contrast with England. In 1826, the number of persons charged with criminal offences in France was 7,591, of whom 603, who fled, were condemned *par contumace*. Of the remainder, 2,640 were acquitted, and 4,348 found guilty and condemned to the following punishments:—

To death,	150*
To hard labour for life,	281
To hard labour for various terms,	1,139
To solitary imprisonment,	1,228
To the pillory,	5
To banishment,	1
To civil degradation,	1
To imprisonment, with or without fine,	1,487
To confinement for a certain number of years, (being under 16 years of age) in a house of correction,	56
	4,348

The proportion of female criminals to males was about 20 in 100: and above half the accused persons were under 30 years of age. In England, in the year 1825, the number of persons found guilty of criminal offences was 9,964. In 1826 it amounted to 11,095, of whom 1,200 were condemned to death! The number of galley-slaves tried for fresh offences, which was 179 in 1826, was in 1827 but 173; the number so tried, who had been punished by close imprisonment, on the contrary, has arisen from 90 to 112. According to reports, the number of liberated galley-slaves existing at this time throughout the kingdom is 11,464, and the number of those who have suffered close imprisonment 7,896. The proportion between these numbers and the fresh trials is, for the galley slaves, as 1 in 66; and the discharged from prison, as 1 in 70. M. de Portalis states, that 98 per cent. of those sentenced for the most dangerous crimes profit by the first punishment, and return to society improved in principles and habits. Such, he says, is the first result of the well-judged reforms which have been begun in the places of confinement. Of all the systems proposed for some time to diminish the number of relapses, that is the only one of which the efficaciousness cannot be contested. The most of the relapses are in the case of the condemnations for theft.

Language.] The Celtic language was that of the earliest inhabitants of Gaul; some remains of it are still preserved in Brittany. With the invasion of the Romans under Julius Cæsar, the Latin became predominant; and with the decay of the Roman empire of the West its language also began to degenerate. A horribly corrupted Latin was now formed by the barbarous pronunciation of the rude Germans, and by the admixture of Franconian, Burgundian, Eastro, and Westro Gothic words and idioms. This new dialect was called the *Romanzo*, and from its earliest formation was divided into two principal dialects. The southern dialect was called the *Langue d'Oc*; and that which was spoken on the north of the Loire, *Langue d'Oui* or *d'Oil:* from this latter the modern French is derived. In the beginning of the 12th century, Raymond de St Giles, count of Provence, united the southern districts of France into one principality, to which he gave the name of Provence; and since that time the two languages have been distinguished by the names of the Provençal and the French. The first, although much altered, is still the language of the people of Provence, Languedoc, Catalonia, Valencia, Majorca, Minorca, and Sardinia. Southern France, favoured by the presence of Greek colonists, as for instance at Marseilles, and by the neighbourhood of the Romans, and blessed by a finer climate, and a more liberal government, made more rapid advances in civilization than the north. There the language was distinguished by its clearness, delicacy, harmony, and richness; and the refinement of the noble classes,—the intercourse with the East, particularly with the poets of the Arabians,—the romantic cast of their minds,—and the wealth and luxury produced by commerce, all conspired to create and refine a poetical taste, which soon spread more generally when the poetry of the Provençal minstrels was patronized by several of their princes whose courts were then among the most refined and most magnificent in Europe. Poetry and songs, accompanied by the lute, the harp, or the violin, added their attractions to every feast, and the names of a Provençal and a poet became almost synonymous. The songs of the Provençal bards were sometimes light and cheerful called *soulas;* often they indulged in plaintive love-songs, called *lais;* sometimes their poetry assumed the form of idylls or *pastourelles*, as they were called; and occasionally the vices of the clergy were lashed in didactic or satiric poems, called *sirrentes.* The poetry of the Provençals purified the taste, enriched the language, excited the spirit of chivalry in men, and in women the wish of appearing amiable. The Provençalian poets were sometimes called Roman poets, and their language *Lingua Romana;* they were also called *Troubadours*, whilst the poets of the north of France were called *Trouvères.* The first of the Troubadours whose name has reached us is William, count of Poitiers and Guyenne, born in 1071, who celebrated in his songs the crusades in which he had taken part. The Troubadours flourished for about 300 years; their golden age was about the year 1162, when Berenger III. obtained Provence as a fief from the emperor Frederic I. The charms of the language and the beauty of the Provençal songs soon made themselves felt in Italy, where Folchetto was the first to woo the Provençal muse; while Alphonso II., and Peter III. and IV. of Spain did not disdain to court her favours. The decay of the Troubadour poetry took place in the 14th century, in the first half of which it was found necessary to stimulate the bards by prizes, such as the golden violets of Toulouse. The last Troubadour mentioned by Millot—the author of one of the standard works on this subject, the *Histoire Litteraire des Troubadours*,

which was published at Paris in 1774—is Jean Esteve de Blésières, who flourished about 1286. We have the names and specimens of the poetry of more than two hundred Troubadours. The most famous are Sordello of Mantua, Peyrols, Bertrand de Born, and that most highly-praised knight Arnold de Maraviglia, whose celebrated motto: "*à Dieu mon âme, mon cœur aux dames, ma vie au Roi, l'honneur pour moi*," (my soul is to God, my heart to the ladies, my life to the king, and my honour to myself,) may be taken as a fair specimen of the richness and shallowness which characterized the spirit both of Provençal chivalry and poetry. It was but the natural course of things that people should get at last tired of the Troubadours; imagination was superseded by fancy in the bards themselves; the nobles of Provence lost the splendour with which they had once been surrounded; the princes who had patronised the tuneful art were gone; the kings of the French house naturally preferred the French language; and subjects for this sort of poetry also began to get scarce with the decline of chivalry. The Troubadours were now called *Menetriers*, (minstrels,) and gradually sunk into vulgar buffoons called *Jongleurs*, with whom unfortunately the earlier and better poets also fell into disrepute. We have among the numerous remains of Provençal poetry, some religious remains, which are valuable not only as specimens of the taste of that early age, but as records of the characters and manners of the well-educated classes. We shall here give our readers a specimen of the Troubadour poetry:—

I. ROMAN-PROVENÇAL.

Al chans d' ausels commenza ma chansas,
Chant aug chantar la ghianta et aiglos
E' pels cortils veg verdegar lo luis.
La blava flors que par entr'els sablos,
La ù s' espand la blanca flor del lis.

"With the song of the birds, my song begins; when I again hear the lark and the black-bird, when I again behold the meadows clothed with verdure, when the blue flower again adorns the hedges, and the brooks roll clearly over the sand, when the white flower of the lily expands."

II. ROMAN-FRENCH.

Quand florist la violette
La rose et la fleur du glais,
Que chante le Papegai
Lors mi poîgnent amoretes,
Qui mi tiennent gai.
Mis pieça ne chantai;
Or chanterai
Et ferai
Chanton joliette
Pour l' amour de ma miette
Ou grand pieca me donnai.

"When the violet blooms, and the rose and the tulips,—when the birds sing, then the little gods of love begin to provoke me, which makes me so cheerful. I have not yet begun to sing; but soon I will sing, and then I will make a pretty little love-song for my beloved, to whom I am so much devoted."

In the 13th century the more prosaic French language began to preponderate. The earliest poets in this language wrote romances full of silly stories and odd fancies. One of the first of these was the *Roman*

de la Rose, a very tiresome affair, but prodigiously well-liked in those times. They also wrote epic poems, such as that of the Twelve Peers of Charlemange, and the Knights of the Round Table, and tales and fables. The French, unlike the Italian and Spanish, had not been formed by a harmonious transformation of the Latin. The Franks and Normans deprived the Latin words of their characteristic final syllables, by changing them into the half-mute German vowel, which afterwards was omitted in common pronunciation, and only preserved in singing and in the orthography. But with these differences, the French *Romanzo* was formed upon the same grammatical principles as the Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. In words of several syllables there still existed at that period an accentuation according to a prosodial quantity; and it is probable that the Latin rhythm of the French language was not entirely lost, till it was thought more elegant to elude the half-mute vowel at the end of the words. It is unknown at what period this custom began; probably it arose first at Paris, as in the *patois* spoken by the common people there, all the mute e's are eluded. Francis I., in 1539, founded a chair for the French language in Paris, and prohibited the Latin from being used in the courts of justice and public acts in which it had been employed till that time. Cardinal Richelieu, by the foundation of the French academy, or the *Academie des Guarante* in 1635, brought the language to its highest point of perfection. The academy became the supreme tribunal for language and literature. Its merits with respect to the first are well known; but in abolishing the free use of custom in the language, and fixing without appeal, so to speak, the rules according to which alone pure French was to be spoken or written, it also deprived men of genius of all opportunity of enriching the language: the court-language alone was approved by the academy; and the public accepted only what was sanctioned by the academy. It is true that in this way the language became elegant, correct, and admirably concise,—every idea can be expressed with nicety and clearness in the present French, but where imagination and feeling require that expression which raises the free mind above all customary forms, genius is overwhelmed by the strict laws of a language, which, in itself neither rich nor picturesque, nevertheless proscribes every word and every phrase which is not admitted at court. The poverty of the French language appears clearly in its numerous calembourgs (puns) and words of an equivocal import. However, it is the language best fitted for conversation, and for the art of saying little in fine phraseology; and there is no language possessed of so great a variety of clear and striking expressions for every thing connected with social life, a fact which explains why it has so long been the language of the courts of a great part of Europe, and of the higher classes of society in many countries. Since the Revolution the iron rampart with which this academy had encircled the language, has been broken through frequently, and many new expressions, and somewhat more liberty in the forms of speech have been introduced, which we dare say will prove a great advantage to the language, although the adherents of the old school have of course raised a great outcry against all innovations which have not been sanctioned by the *Dictionnaire de l'Academie!*

Literature.] As we have already observed, the North and South of France were early entirely separated with regard to literature. We have given a short sketch of the early literature of the South above. The Normans, who contributed much to give a new turn to the imagination of the

European nations in general, exercised also a decided influence on the literature of the North of France. They delighted in the narration of heroical and marvellous exploits, and facetious stories, and their *chansons* or songs were of a quite different character from those of the South, although the same romantic spirit which in the middle ages animated every nation of Europe, here too mingled its poetry with the whole of social life. The same chivalrous gallantry breathes in the poems which were sung on the banks of the Seine, as in those of the Arno and Tagus. However, in the poetry of the French, witty entertainment and ingenious sallies were always preferred to the expression of deep feelings. The university of Paris became the seat of scholastical philosophy and theology. It was here that the scholastic art of disputing was taught; and to this fact may be attributed in some measure, the superiority of the French as a rhetorical, and its inferiority as a poetical language. Earlier than any other modern nation the French endeavoured to write a natural instead of a pedantic prose; and they certainly attained their object. Clearness, concision, harmony, an easy phraseology, and a pleasant lightness of style, raised the French prose to classic excellency in the age of Louis XIV.; and the truth of Voltaire's judgment: "Le qui n'est pas clair, n'est pas Francais," (That which is not perspicuous is not French,) is proved by the whole of French literature.

We shall now give a very brief account of the most remarkable and influential authors and works in the different departments of this very rich literature. Fifty years after Bacon had explained the difference between real and philosophical grammar, Lancelot, under Arnaud's direction, wrote the general Grammar well-known under the title of *L' âme de Port-Royal*, with which work the French scientific literature may be said to begin. Robert and Henry Etienne wrote in the time of Henry II. on their native language. Since the establishment of the academy, Vaugelas, Thomas Corneille, Patut, Menage, and others, have written on the same subject. Condillac threw much light on the philosophy of language by his *Grammaire Generale*, which is still considered a standard work. Domergue also distinguished himself as a grammarian. Volney's work on oriental languages is remarkable, and contains an attempt at a general alphabet for the languages of all countries. Laoux has given a *Nouveau dictionnaire de la langue Française*, in which he ventures to suggest a great many innovations on the present French language, and proves it to be possessed of a richness which the authors of the *Dictionnaire de l'Academie*, had certainly never dreamed of.—The Germans will scarcely allow that the French possess any writers on moral philosophy and metaphysics. Deep thought is as little characteristic of the nation as deep feeling; and the profoundly abstract is as seldom to be met with in French literature as in French society. Descartes, Arnaud, Nicole, and Mallebranche, excited attention for some time; but their writings had no permanent effect on the public mind at large. Buffier, Condillac, Charles Bonnet, Helvetius, and Marmontel, endeavoured to disseminate ideas of a higher cast; but their philosophy was a mere system of morals, with an admirably delicate psychology,—that higher knowledge of man which can only be attained by the severest effort of the philosophical mind, remained unknown to them. Voltaire's influence upon the literature of France is incalculable. He had neither a deep spirit of inquiry, nor any acquaintance with the higher feelings; but to a clear understanding, he added an inexhaustible wit, and an exquisite talent for satire; and in spite of the licentiousness and hea-

then scepticism which disfigures many of his writings, the literature of his country is indebted to him for several of its finest ornaments. The boldness with which he took up the defence of the family of the unfortunate Calas, who had been sacrificed to the most atrocious fanaticism, cannot be too highly praised. The philosophy of J. J. Rousseau was of a different complexion. He admired what was noble and good; but he united the utmost weakness of character with the greatest strength of mind, and was perpetually running into extremes. The eloquence of his writings, however, exerted a powerful influence in the beginning of the Revolution. By the French *Encyclopedists*, are understood not only the editors of the Encyclopedia of sciences and arts, but also those who took a great interest in that undertaking. Diderot stood at the head of it. He was a very clear-sighted man, and full of extensive information; he also possessed some enthusiasm, but he had no taste for poetry. Next to him D'Alembert was the most remarkable of the Encyclopedists; he was possessed of great understanding and modesty, but he was born for the cultivation of mathematical science alone, and to him even the poetry of the French was too poetical. The acute Helvetius was the third leader of the academy. These three men gave an exceedingly anti-poetical tone to the philosophy of the French. We must also name among the philosophical writers of a more recent period, Bonnet and Cabanis. Since the Revolution, which operated a favourable change on the national character, by effacing from it in a considerable degree that excessive frivolity which formed so prominent a feature in it, and which brought the French more into contact with other nations, particularly the Germans, French philosophy has changed its character considerably. Among the modern French philosophical authors are De Gerando, Laromiguière, De Tracy, Boyer, Collard, Garat, and Cousin, the translator of Plato, who now stands at the head of the modern school of French philosophy. We may name among the philosophical authors of French literature, Ch. Victor de Boustillen, who, though a Swiss by birth, has published several valuable philosophical works in French; Buchon has given a translation of Dugald Stewart's Essays, under the title of *Histoire abrégée des sciences métaphysiques, morales, et politique, Depuis la renaissance des lettres;* and Keratry a translation of Kant's works on the Beautiful and the Sublime. In practical philosophy several good works have appeared in France; and Amaury Duval has in his *Collection des Moralistes Français* given a good sketch of what has been done in this part of literature by his countrymen.

In morals, politics, and legislation, the French possess very valuable works. The Essays of the clever and ingenious Montaigne are well-known. Pascal is justly numbered among the best writers of the golden age of French literature. A heavenly spirit pervades all his writings, whether on morals, religion, or science. He had the boldness to unvail in his *Lettres Provinciales*, the casuistical morality of the Jesuits. The *Maximes* of the acute Duke de la Rochefaucauld, are a portion of classical French prose; they are cutting, sharp, and unfeeling, but unfortunately are often only too true a picture of the people of the gay world among whom the author moved. La Bruyere's *Caractères*, is a work celebrated through all Europe. Two other works have obtained high and general reputation: Fenelon's *Telemaque*, written for the instruction of princes; and Rousseau's *Emilius*. The latter work, though containing many errors and exaggerations, deserves our praise on account of the salutary revolution it produced in the systems of education pursued throughout the continent.

Helvetius's Course of Study, composed for the use of his pupil the prince of Parma, is an excellent and important work. Other authors on morals, are Marmontel, Arnaud, Volney, St Lambert, Madame de Staël, and Necker. The political writers of the French begin with the venerable chancellor De l'Hospital, who was succeeded by Dumoulin, Hubert Languet, Bodin, Lamoignou, D'Aguesseau, St Pierre, Melon, Sully, and Montesquieu, the author of the *Esprit des lois*,—a work whose merits were once prodigiously overrated. Since the Revolution, Mably, Servan, Dupaty, Turgot, Necker, Madame de Staël, Mirabeau, Sieyes, Lebrun, Barbi Marbois, Dupont de Nemours, Garnier, S. B. Say, Merlin, Pastoret, Talleyrand, Daru, B. Constant, Guizot, Bignou, Fievée, Lanjuinais, De Pradt, and Sismondi, have added to this department.

In rhetoric and belles lettres, the French have numerous works; but many of these have lost their former reputation on account of the narrow and partial views which the French long entertained in these matters. Among the earlier writers Rollin's *Traité des Etudes*, is a work still valued on account of its extreme perspicuity. Batteux, Dubas, Diderot, Marmontel, Buffier, Fenelon, Voltaire, the cardinal Maury, Arnaud, Chamfort, La Harpe, and Noël, have distinguished themselves in the belles lettres.

In scientific works of every description, the literature of France is very rich. The clearness and precision of the language render it particularly fit for the purposes of science, and above all for mathematical science. We name here Buffon, Lacépede, Cuvier, Jussieu, and De Candolle, in the different branches of natural history, zoology, and botany. D'Alembert, Lavoisier, Fourcroy, De Luc, Gay-Lussac, Lempère, Biot, Thenard, Pictet, La Grange, Lalande, Maupertuis, Laplace, Lacroix, Saussure, and Delambre, in natural philosophy, chemistry, and mathematical science; Tissot, Odier, Corvisart, Puységur, and Bichat, in medicine; Millin, D'Agincourt, Landon, Denon, in antiquities and history of art; Percier, Fontaine, and Miché, in architecture; Langlés, Sylvester de Sacy, Chezy, Abel, Remusat, and De Guignes, in oriental literature; and D'Lisle, D'Anville, Bauche, Barbie, D'Bocage, Cassini, and Malte Brun, in geography. In theological literature, Lingendes so early as the age of Louis XIII. distinguished himself by his eloquent sermons; Bossuet was one of the most brilliant writers of the age of Louis XIV.; Bourdaloue is considered by some as the most eloquent French preacher; Massillon's sermons breathe a touching spirit of Christian humility; and Saurin's discourses are much esteemed. Pascal's theological writings we have already mentioned; Flechier is eloquent and correct; and Cheminais, La Rue, and Mascaron, enforced the truths of religion with eloquence and success. In books of education the French have those of Rousseau, Beaumont, Madame de Genlis, Berquin, Ducray-Dumenil, and Madame Delafaye.

It is in the department of historical literature that the most ancient monuments of French eloquence are to be found. It is particularly rich in memoirs; indeed the French have always succeeded in the observation of character and the manners of public and private life. The investigation of these multitudinous memoirs is very much facilitated by the valuable *Collection universelle des Mémoires relatifs à l'histoire de France*, of which the first twelve volumes only contain those from the 13th to the end of the 15th century. At the head of their authors stands the chevalier Jean de Joinville, who accompanied King Louis the Saint to Palestine, and whose simple and naive-style has a grace truly romantic. Christina de Pisan, daughter of the astrologer of Charles V. holds the next place.

Philip de Comines has painted the gloomy and dissimulating Louis XI. in striking colours. Froissart wrote a historical work on a larger scale, of which, by a plentiful effusion of the marvellous, he endeavoured to make a sort of epic poem. Brantome de Thou, who has written in Latin, and the cardinal de Retz, deserve mention here. Bossuet's work on universal history is a master-piece of its kind; St Real, Vertot, Bougeant, Rollin, Henaut, Montesquieu, Voltaire, Mably, Millot, Raynal, Ruthières, and Michaud, swell the list of French historians; to which might be added the name of the king of Prussia, Frederic the Great, whose *Memoires de Brandenbourg*, and *Histoire de mon tems*, are valuable works. The Revolution increased the taste for historical works and memoirs; and since that event several very excellent pieces have appeared. Our limited space will only allow us to name a few of the most distinguished authors, as Thouret, Gaillard, Babant, St Etienne, Lacretelle, Sismondi, Mirabeau, Dupont de l'Enee, Etienne, Manul, Ségur, Kératry, Guizot, the baron de Baranthe, Mignot, M. de Norvius, Mathieu Dumas, Las Casas, Gouvion, St Cyr, Montholou, and Gourgaud; and in literary history Ginguené and Sismondi.

The first romance in French literature, namely, the *Roman de la Rose*, has already been noticed. Towards the end of the 13th century, an allegorical romance was written by one Jacques Gelée, called *Le Roman du nouveau rénard*, which may probably have given occasion to the German *Reinecke Fuchs*. The one hundred *Nouvelles de la cour de Bourgogne*, were written in the reign of Charles VII.; and those of the queen of Navarre—unfortunately but too true pictures of the manners of the court at that time—in 1559. The Crusades introduced a taste for the marvellous and fairy tales, with Arabian poetry, into France. The tale of Blue Beard, the Fair Melusine, and almost all ancient popular tales, came originally from France. They were called *fabliaux*. The chivalrous novels, such as *Huon de Bordeaux*, and *Ogier le Danois*, were mostly written in the beginning of the 15th century. The same taste, however, manifested itself in the succeeding century, when a great number of writers appeared in this department, of whom we only mention Noel du Tail, De la Mothe Roulland, Cnapuir, Tabourot, &c. A new species of writing in the satyric novel was introduced in the 16th century by Rabelais, and found a number of imitators. The taste for pastoral novels was of later growth and caught from the Spanish. The first French author who may be said to have rivalled the Spanish was Honoré d'Urfé of Marseilles, whose *Astrée*, in five volumes, was received with enthusiasm. Some remains of the old Provençal spirit appear in it. The romantic sentimentality of these works may be also traced in the historical novels of the age of Louis XIV. Calprénèdes Fragments of Greek and Roman History have nothing of classical truth in them with the exception of the names. He was followed by Mademoiselle de Scudery who wrote seven very long novels; the first of which, *Ælia*, occupies ten volumes! The ladies have been assiduous in this department. The fairy tales came next into fashion; the Arabian Nights were translated by Galland, and found numerous imitators, among whom were Perrault, Madame d'Aunoy, and the witty count Hamilton. Comical novels are a description of works very well adapted to the taste of the French. *Le Roman Comique*, by Scarron, is full of wit; and so are those of Le Sage, in imitation of the unrivalled Spanish writings of this class. Voltaire has also explored this field of literature. Among the French novelists are Prevot, who began by translating our own

Richardson's novels, Segrais, Montesquieu, whose *Lettres Persannes* are in truth a philosophical satire, Rousseau, Marivaux, Diderot, Madame de Tenier, Madame Riccoboni, Crebillon, Rétif de la Britonne, Marmontel, and Florian. In later times Bernardin de St Pierre, Chateaubriand, Madame de Staël, Madame de Genlis, Madame Cottin, Madame de Flahault, now Madame de Touza, Madame de Montolieu, Fiévér, Arlincourt, Nodier, Pigault-le-brun, and Picard, have been favourably received as novelists by the French public.

In letter-writing the French have excelled since the days of Richelieu, who himself wrote with care and elegancy. Balzac, Voiture, and Costar, are among the earlier writers of this class. But the most distinguished is the amiable Madame de Sevigné, whose letters—which were not intended for publication—are not only written with united elegance and care, but are also interesting on account of the amiable character of the authoress which every where reveals itself in them. Among other very interesting letter-writers are Mademoiselle de l'Espinasse, Madame du Deffand, Bussy Rabutin, Chaulieu, and Bernis.

Books of voyages and travels are also very abundant in French literature. The Abbe Prevot, Denon, Volney, Delaborde, and above all, Humboldt and Bonpland deserve special notice here.

We have already given some account of the French poetry of the earlier times. The songs of several French poets of the 14th century bear great resemblance to the old Spanish. The 15th century was the golden age of the Provençal lyric poetry. To this period belong Clotilde du Vallon Chalys, Alain Chartier, and Villon. Michault, Martial d'Auvergne, and Michel d'Amboise, belong to the lyrical poets of the beginning of the 16th century. With Francis I. the poetical spirit of chivalry gleamed out for the last time in all its splendour. Under Catherine of Medicis the sonnet began to be in fashion. The Marots, father and son, belong to this period; they were succeeded by Jodelle. The celebrated Malherbe, whom the French esteem one of their first lyric poets, had neither imagination nor enthusiasm; but he was a perfect master of the language and the art of versification. He died in 1627. The influence of Aristotle's poetics on French literature was very marked so early as the 16th century. The inimitable fables of La Fontaine, who died in 1694, are true poetry. Boileau's Satires are amusing; but his school stifled all true genius in its shackles of rules. Among other poets of this and the following times we name Benserade, Chaulieu, Voltaire, J. B. Rousseau, Louis Racine, Le Franc de Pampignan, Bouffleur, and Florian. In more recent times the French school of poetry, like other branches of literature, has been divided betwixt two parties; of which the one contends for the old classic rules, and the other, called the romantic, inclines to the German and English taste in poetry. Lebrun, Casimir Lavigne, La Martine, and Beranger, are the poets of the present generation. French didactic and descriptive poems are numerous; one of the most celebrated is the *Art Poétique* of Boilieu. Delille is one of the best didactic poets.

The earliest traces of French dramatic art are found under Charlemagne, when the first mention is made of the *Histrions*, who were banished on account of their great licentiousness. The Troubadours also introduced poetical dialogues. But these rude attempts can scarcely be considered as belonging to the dramatic art, which in France did not really exist earlier than the end of the 14th, or the beginning of the 15th century. As in the times of antiquity, the dramatic art among Christian nations be-

gan with religious representations called *mysteries*. In the reign of Charles V. the songs which the pilgrims on their return from their wanderings in the marvellous East were in the habit of singing in public, gave the first idea of those religious poems in dialogues. Under Charles VII. and Louis IX. these representations, of which the actors were called *les freres de la passion*, succeeded very well; the subject was always taken from the Bible, or from Catholic legends, and the practice was considered rather in a religious light than as an amusement. The most singular representations and outrageous anachronisms were committed in these mysteries, and historical dramas. Herod, for instance, was sometimes represented as a Heathen, and the Roman Governor of Judea as a Mahomedan! Such was the beginning of the dramatic art in France. Besides these *Freres de la passion*, the advocates founded a society among themselves, called *La Bazoche*, which also gave dramatical entertainments called *moralities* and farces. The former consisted principally of allegories, and some of them were very witty; in the latter, real life was often caricatured with great comical power. A third cotemporary society was called *Les enfans sans souci;* but both these societies were afterwards abolished: the first in 1545, and the second in 1612. By the invention of the art of printing, the Greek and Roman theatre became known in France; and Etienne Jodelle, who died in 1557, having formed his taste in the school of the Classics, gave to the whole dramatic art in France that turn and character which it ever afterwards preserved. Jodelle chose the Grecian theatre for his model, and introduced the strictest observance of the three unities. He adopted a pure historical style, banished the marvellous from the stage, and took his subjects from Greek and Roman history; but his heroes spoke like modern Frenchmen, and in the most exaggerated style of the rhetorical character of ancient tragedy. His works, however, were received with great applause by the court, and it must be confessed that his Dido truly contains great beauties. Rousard is the most celebrated of his imitators. During the second half of the 16th century, the French drama began to be entirely modelled on the ancient Greek. The French dramatic poets till the time of Louis XIII. were of little merit; at last appeared Pierre Corneille, born in 1606 at Rouen, who outshone all his predecessors. His characters are powerfully sketched, and his language is bold and full of dignity. Jean Racine, born in 1639, soon became the favourite in tragical poetry. He was truly the man of his age and nation; the most elegant of all French dramatic poets, he wrote with the greatest delicacy and care; every poetical license appeared to him an infringement of the canons of taste, and the fashion of the court was his model. Voltaire is the third great tragedian of the French; and Crebillon is the last of those who are counted first-rate authors in the French drama. To the second rank belong Thomas Corneille, Lafosse, and Lemeure. Among the modern French dramatists we may name Duces, who has arranged several of Shakspeare's pieces for the French theatre, Lemercier, Raynouard, Arnault, Jouy, Casimir de la Vigne, Lebrun, and Viennet. In comedy the French may compete with any nation. We have already mentioned the farces of the Bazoche and of the Enfans Sans Souci. Jodelle also reformed the French comedy. His first comedy, *l'Albé Eugene*, was greatly admired by the court and the capital; and may be regarded as the first regular national comedy. In the year 1552 the company of *Les freres de la passion* yielded their patent to a company of performers who yet exist under the name of *Troupe de la Comédie Française*,

Henry III. invited Italian comedians to France. Corneille wrote several good comedies, and Racine a very witty one called *Les plaideurs.* But the great French writer in comedy is Molière, born in 1620. He performed himself. His comedies evince a deep study of nature and profound acquaintance with human character; and are all master-pieces in the art. Regnard is the best of his followers. Destouches drew characters admirably. Farces and interludes have been written by Bergerac, Boursault, Bueys, and Palaprat. Quinault distinguished himself in the opera, and Pirou, Gresset, and Beaumarchais, have written plays, which have been received with great approbation. *Le mariage de Figaro,* by Beaumarchais, was performed 73 times consecutively to a full house. Of the later writers, the most distinguished are Callé, Fagan, Fabre d'Eglantine, Cailhava, Français de Neufchateau, Colin d'Harléville, Picard, Duval, and Rouilly. Perhaps we should hint here at the existence of those very witty and amusing little French pieces intermixed with popular songs, called *Vaudevilles.*

In the most remote times the Gauls had a peculiar music. Diodorus, Gregory of Tours, and others, relate that in the year B. C. 214 musical schools were established in this country. That Bardus, a king of the Gauls, founded them; and that it was from him that singers and players came to be called *bards.* It is certain that the Bards were of Celtic or Gallic origin; and according to what Strabo, Diodorus, and others, relate, it cannot be doubted that this nation possessed a considerable knowledge of music and a taste for it. When the Gauls were subdued by the Romans, the bards and druids left the country; and the next notice that we find of music among the French is when we are told that Pharamond, at the head of his army, was proclaimed king to the sound of martial music. At the baptism of king Clovis, the music performed in the church at Rheims, inspired him with such admiration that he ever afterwards patronised musicians; and in a treaty of peace with Theodorick, king of the East Goths, he stipulated that the latter should send him a good performer on the guitar, and some singers from Italy. Under Pepin's reign the organ was introduced into France. Francis I. the friend of all arts, had his own musicians, whom he carried along with him in his expeditions to Italy, by which circumstance a better taste was again introduced into France. Louis XIII. patronised music and the drama, which were still more advanced under Louis XIV., when Lulli corrected and formed the national taste. This musician was born at Florence in 1633; but came in his 14th year to France, where he spent the remainder of his life. After his death music made little advance, till Rameau appeared, who was a very clever composer, but his music wants feeling, and is often overloaded with ornaments and tasteless. Rousseau, who felt the whole beauty of the Italian music, became his adversary, and composed some very fine pieces of music and a much-admired opera. Gluck, a German, and Piccini, an Italian, both distinguished composers, gave a new direction to the French music; but the national taste became again predominant. Speaking generally, the French excel in simple tunes, lively songs, and elegant dancing-music; but in the higher style of the art they are altogether unsuccessful. Among the later French composers Gretig, Mehul, and Le Sueur, are distinguished. The music of the Italian opera is again gaining admirers in France. In instrumental music the French are very skilful. One of the most distinguished musical establishments in Europe is the *Conservatoire* at Paris, which was founded during the Revolution, and in which very excellent artists have been formed.

The first rudiments of the fine arts were imported into Gaul by the Romans. Under the sway of the Franks painting was in its infancy, but several churches and convents began to be ornamented with pictures. Glass-painting seems to have been much employed in the time of Fredegunde. There are almost no pictures remaining of the time of the Carlovingians. Louis le Débonnair protected the fine arts; but the devastations of the Normans destroyed every thing. The earliest specimens of French painting are preserved in some very fine miniatures in the royal library at Paris; among them we observe a manuscript of the four evangelists, with a portrait of the emperor Lothar, and the illuminated Bible of Charles the Bald, who invited Grecian artists to France. A better taste was introduced under Francis I.; and with him the art of painting may be said to have begun in France. He invited Leonardo da Vinci to France; several other Italian artists followed, and it was by them that the French school was founded. But painting soon degenerated in France, like a foreign plant forced in a hot-house. Simon Vouet, born at Paris 1582, was a distinguished artist; he purified the national taste, and became the founder of a new school, in which were formed Le Brun, Le Sueur, and several other eminent artists contemporary with him; but a painter of a different style was Nicolas Poussin, sometimes called the French Raphael, who had formed his taste entirely at Rome. Among other celebrated painters of this epoch are Jaques Blanchard, the two brothers Mignard, Claud Gelée, called Le Lorrain, who died in 1682, Eustache le Sueur, and Charles le Brun, descended from a Scottish family. After them came Mola, the brothers Courtair, called Bourgoignon, Vivien, and Jauvenit. Under Louis XV. we find Vanloo, and Le Moine; but Huet and Boucher entirely degraded their art, and the first pleasing artist we again find is the landscape painter Joseph Vernet, born in 1714. Greuze, born in 1726, painted very graceful pictures, and may be called the popular painter of the French, as he represented with great truth scenes from real life. Vien, born in 1715, again purified the national taste, and may be called the father of the new French school, which was strictly speaking founded by his great scholar David, who introduced the study of the antique and of nature. The most distinguished of his scholars are Gérard Gros, Ingres, Madame Lerveck, and Madame Mangès. Regnault heads another school; his best scholar is Guérin, but he has numerous others, as Meujaud, Blondel, Madame Auzon, and Mademoiselle Lorimier. Isabey is celebrated as a miniature-painter. Desnoyers and Berwick are distinguished engravers. The French have also very good artists in lithography. Sarrasin may be said to be the founder of the French school of sculpture; his scholars are Puget, Girardon, Bourhardou, Falconet, Sailly, Pajon, and Moilte.

State of Education.] Education in France, as in all Catholic countries, is extremely imperfect. Before the Revolution it was more diffused through the great mass of the people than in other Catholic countries; that event, however, annihilated every existing institution, and those for public instruction among the rest, and a whole nation of nearly 30 millions of people remained almost without the means of education for a period of nearly five years. The Directory at last found it necessary to attend to this subject; and two degrees of instruction were established by means of primary and central schools. In point of fact, however, the former never existed from the want of money to pay the masters; and the latter languished, because through the failure of the primary schools the elementary branches of education were deficient. Buonaparte turned

his attention to this subject; not so much with a view to the moral improvement of his subjects, as to mould the manners and opinions of the rising generation into a strict conformity to his warlike system. A decree was issued in the beginning of 1808, by which all schools, academies, and colleges in his empire, were formed into one body, denominated the *Imperial University.* To this body public instruction was exclusively intrusted. Each academy of the imperial university was to contain five gradations of schools: three private and two public. The three private schools were denominated *primary*, and *secondary schools*, and *lyceums.* The first were intended for the elementary instruction of children in reading and writing their native language; the second for instruction in Latin and French, and in the rudiments of geography, history, and mathematics; and the last for the higher branches of these sciences, and the use of arms and military manœuvres. The two others were *communal colleges*, or secondary schools, for the rudiments of Latin, history, and the sciences; and lyceums and *faculties* in which degrees are conferred. Uniformity of education was the principle of the new system; but except the lyceums, its elements existed merely in paper. The primary schools, obviously the most important, were mere nonentities, possessing neither teachers nor scholars; and the secondary schools were—for the same reason that prevented the success of the others, namely, the want of necessary funds to pay the teachers,—in a similar state. The whole number of pupils, boarders, and day-scholars were estimated in Fourcroy's report to the Legislative Body upon this subject, at 75,186, at a time when the population of the French territories was advanced to 32,000,000 inhabitants, 1-4th of which must have consisted of children from 1 to 10 years of age. We must also observe, that, according to this report, only 25,000 scholars out of the above number belonged to the primary schools. Now this is quite the reverse of the order of Nature; as the greatest number should have been comprehended in the primary schools, where the simple elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic are taught. The mournful consequence of this want of elementary instruction we give in Fourcroy's own words: "In most country communes, there is not a man who can read and write well enough to keep the registers of the proceedings that fall under the cognizance of the mayor." Buonaparte, very generously, indeed, undertook to educate at his own expense every seventh child, if the parents should consent to it; but as every such child became, from the moment that such consent was granted, public property, it is not at all surprising that most parents should have preferred to let their children grow up without education, rather than surrender them to the government, to be trained upon this system. The lyceums formed the most important part of Buonaparte's system of education. By the first decree, 32 of these institutions were established, which number was afterwards increased to 45, in order to bear the same relative proportion to the French territory as increased by successive conquests. Buonaparte designed by extending this system to every new annexation of country, to identify the rising generation of these new subjects, in their manners, opinions, and habits with the French. These lyceums were in fact mere nurseries for the army. There is a paragraph in Buonaparte's decree for establishing this new system of uniform instruction which shows clearly the end he had in view in their establishment: "All public education ought to be regulated on the principles of *military discipline*, and not on those of civil or ecclesiastical discipline. The habitude of military discipline is the most useful; since, at all periods of

life, it is requisite for the citizen to be able to defend his property against internal or external enemies. Ten years more are still required for realizing all the benefits which his majesty expects from the university, and for accomplishing his views; but great advantages are already obtained, and what exists, is preferable to that which has existed."[10] Such is the outline of the famous system of education devised by Napoleon, not for the good of his subjects, but to foster a military spirit, and diffuse it not only in France, but over all his other territorial acquisitions. The intellect alone was to be cultivated, while the region of the heart was to remain a dreary solitude, a barren wild. Religion and morality were no objects of his care; and the less his subjects had of these, the fitter they were for him. Knowledge was to be divested of every thing which could give it a moral and beneficial tendency; and great intellectual powers were to be stripped of all those accompaniments which recommend them to the heart. Talent was to be disciplined at the expense of virtue, and to be so cultivated as to leave it nothing but its sagacity and dexterity, which might be employed in his service; while its fine sensibilities, and its relish for simplicity and truth, were destroyed as worse than inconvenient. It was in literature, elegant, moral, and religious, that Buonaparte saw the most formidable enemy of his power and despotism. He intended ultimately to limit the education of youth to the mathematical and physical sciences only; aware that, in those studies, nothing would occur to moralize them, or to inculcate sentiments of horror at the despotism with which he had enchained France, and with which he was preparing to enchain the world. In the perusal of a Bible or a moral treatise, in reading a Greek or Roman historian, in turning over the pages of Xenophon or Tacitus,—some inferences might be drawn by the dullest peasant,—some thoughts elicited by very ordinary students, not exactly harmonizing with the plans of their imperial master. Hence it happened that literature and literary-institutions under Napoleon's sway declined in France; while the sciences, that have external nature, or the mere physical system of man for their object, were cultivated with the greatest ardour. This system of things has been productive of the most baneful effects. Education is a most important subject, as it involves in its consequences the characters and fates of nations.

> "From education, as the leading cause,
> The public character its colour draws;
> Thence the prevailing manners take their cast,—
> Extravagant or sober, loose or chaste."

[10] An imperial catechism was promulgated under authority, for the instruction of the young catechumen in the duties of religion. In this precious production, the pupils are asked: "What are their duties towards Napoleon I.?" and the answer is, "Christians owe to the princes who govern them, and we owe, in particular, to our emperor, Napoleon I. love, respect, obedience, fidelity, military service, and the contributions required for the preservation and defence of the emperor and his throne."—"Why (it is next asked) are we bound to fulfil all these duties towards our emperor?" *Ans.* "In the first place, because God, who creates empires and dispenses them according to his will, has, by endowing our emperor with a profusion of gifts, as well in peace as in war, appointed him our sovereign and made him the minister of his power, and his image upon earth. To honour and serve our emperor is, therefore, the same thing as to honour and serve God himself."—The blasphemy does not stop here: "What (it is again asked) are we to think respecting those who violate their duty towards our emperor?" *Ans.* "According to the Apostle Paul, they would resist the ordinance of God himself, and render themselves worthy of eternal damnation."—Q. "Are the duties by which we are bound to our emperor, equally binding towards his legitimate successors?" *Ans.* "Yes, undoubtedly. For we read in sacred Scripture, that God, the Lord of Heaven and Earth, by a disposition of his Supreme will, gives Empire not only to a person in particular, but also to his family."—What a fine specimen of the old doctrine of the divine right of kings! This catechism received the sanction of the Pope, and was taught by the French clergy.

And as to the superiority of moral education above every other kind of instruction, we think the sentiments of Dr Johnson eminently just: "The truth is, that the knowledge of external nature, and the sciences included or implied in that knowledge, are not the great or the frequent business of the human mind. Whether we provide for action, or amusement, or conversation, whether we wish to be useful or pleasing, the first requisite is the religious and moral knowledge of right and wrong; the next is an acquaintance with the history of mankind, and with those examples which may be said to embody truth, and thereby prove the reasonableness of opinions. Prudence and justice are virtues and excellencies of all times, and of all places. We are perpetually moralists; but we are geometricians only by chance. Our intercourse with intellectual nature is necessary: our speculations upon matter are voluntary, and at leisure. Physiological learning is of such rare occurrence, that one man may know another half his life without being able to estimate his skill in hydrostatics or astronomy; but his moral and prudential character immediately appear." It was a melancholy sight to behold men possessed of all the treasures of mathematical knowledge and astronomical science,—versed in every branch of chemistry, and every department of physics,—men who could weigh with mathematical precision the masses of the heavenly bodies, and accurately assign their real and relative densities, calculate the minima and maxima of the anomalies of the planetary motions with those of their attending satellites, and trace the causes of such anomalies, delineate the paths of the comets, and predict their return, ascertain exactly the degrees of solar and lunar attraction, and their combined or separate influence in producing the tides,—to see such minds prostrate themselves before the throne of a tyrant and worship him, because he talked of science and the glory of France. Men who, rejecting the doctrine of final causes, could see no proofs of design in the harmony and nice adjustment of the motions of the heavenly bodies, and therefore could discover no designer, no intelligent mover, no infinite wisdom, nor power, nor goodness,—who saw in fine nothing but eternal motion,—these men beheld in every act of Napoleon's will, in every part of his political conduct, consummate wisdom, unerring skill, and benignant goodness!

The recent overthrow of military despotism in France was followed by the extinction of this military mode of instruction. Schools, upon the Lancasterian plan, have been introduced by the government into every large city in the kingdom; but we are sorry to say, that the benefits of this system have been nearly neutralized by the influence of the Jesuits, who in 6 years annihilated 700 schools. At a recent meeting of the Society in Paris for the promotion of elementary instruction, one of the secretaries read a report from which it appears that of 39,381 communes, only 24,000 have schools, and that nearly 4,000,000 of children are in a great measure destitute of the means of instruction. M. Dupin has calculated that three-fifths of the French nation are not able to read! and that in some departments, out of 220 individuals, only one boy goes to school!! Within four days' journey of Paris, on the banks of the Loire, are many communes in which it is difficult to find a man who can write, to make a mayor of him, with another able to sign his name as adjunct! All establishments for education in France are under the special direction of a committee, over which a minister of state presides. The public establishments for instruction consist first of academies which have the right of conferring degrees: viz *1st*, Those of theology, of which there are as many as there are

metropolitan churches, besides the two protestant academies at Strasburg and Montauban; 2*d*, Those of jurisprudence at Paris, Strasburg, Dijon, Caen, and several other places; 3*d*, Those of medicine, of which there are only three at Paris, Strasburg, and Montpellier; 4*th*, Those of mathematics and natural philosophy at Paris, Strasburg, Lyons, Bordeaux, and other places; and 5*th*, Those of belles lettres at Paris, Strasburg, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Lyons, Rennes, and other places. The second class are the *colleges royaux*, the number of which is to be brought to 100, but at present there are not even the half of that number in existence. The classical languages, history, rhetoric, logic, mathematics, and natural philosophy, are taught in them upon the system of the German universities, with the difference that the professors are paid by the government, and deliver all their lectures gratis to the students. Besides these, there are lyceums and high-schools, preparatory for the colleges, and which are called *Ecoles primaires*, in which reading, writing, and arithmetic, are taught.

Universities.] France had 23 universities before the Revolution, namely, Douay, Caen, Paris, Rheims, Nancy, Strasburg, Nantes, Angers, Poitiers, Orléans, Bourges, Dijon, Besançon, Bordeaux, Pau, Perpignan, Toulouse, Montpellier, Aix, Orange, Avignon, Cahors, Pont-à-Mousson, and Valence. Of these, the Sorbonne, at Paris, founded in 1250 by Robert de Sorbonne, was the most celebrated; but it showed an irremediable tendency to prolong the reign of scholastic theology. The academies and literary societies were computed at 39. The universities were supplanted at the Revolution by the *ecoles centrales*, *primaires*, and *secondaires*. The academies in Paris were united into one, and denominated the National Institute, soon after the Revolution. This institution is divided into 4 academies: the *Academie Francaise* composed of 40 members; that of inscription and belles lettres also including 40 members; the royal academy of sciences having 63 members; and that of the fine arts comprehending 40 members. Napoleon's Imperial University has been retained with some modification since the Restoration. It includes 26 academies: viz. Those of Aix, Amiens, Angers, Besançon, Bordeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Clermont, Dijon, Douay, Grenoble, Limoges, Lyons, Metz, Montpellier, Nancy, Nismes, Orleans, Paris, Pau, Poitiers, Rennes, Rouen, Strasburg, and Toulouse. Each of these academies is governed by a rector, and includes a *college royal*, corresponding with Napoleon's *lycées*. The organization of the colleges and high schools in most of the provincial towns is very bad. The old systems of teaching are still employed; and the professors themselves are generally of very indifferent talents, as in France all superior men flock to Paris. The liberality with which all public institutions, libraries, and museums are opened to the public cannot be too highly praised, and affords a striking contrast to the niggardliness of some of our own institutions.

Mechanics' Institutions.] The impulse given in our own country to the business of popular instruction has extended, we are happy to say, over the greater part of Europe, and to France in particular. In November 1824, the first attempt was made in France to impart scientific knowledge to artisans. In a recent number of the *Moniteur*, we find an interesting report from the celebrated traveller and engineer, baron Dupin, on the establishment of lectures on mechanics, hydrography, and the application of geometry to the arts, in all the maritime cities of France. These lectures appear to have been instituted, and to have attracted great

attention, in every town, large or small, along the immense line of French coasts on the channel, the ocean, and the Mediterranean. In the interior, some cities have also adopted them; 98 towns in December 1826, could boast of having lectures and other means for teaching workmen practical geometry, and in every part the people display the same eagerness to acquire useful instruction. The most extraordinary statement in this report, is a complaint, that throughout the whole of the *littorale* of France, the French language is not spoken, and scarcely understood; so that in many places the professors can only benefit the few learned individuals who know the national tongue. Along the northern coast the people speak Flemish; throughout Brittany they preserve their idiom, which is even at this period comprehended in Wales. The inhabitants of the Landes only use the Basque, which is thought by some to be the ancient Phœnician or Carthaginian. And along the Mediterranean, the Languedocian and the Provençal perpetuate the language of the early Troubadours, whose spirit and melodies also survive the days of romance and chivalry. The Baron strongly impresses upon the government the necessity of establishing elementary schools to teach French to the French, together with reading and writing, in which they are generally deficient. In imitation of the series of scientific treatises now in the course of publication by our invaluable "Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge," the Baron Dupin has composed a text-book on mathematics as applied to the arts for the different institutions of France. A series of *Manuels*, an *Encyclopédie Portative*, and finally a *Société pour l'instruction elementaire*, have been also established. One great distinction, however, between the systems followed in Britain and France, is that in our country the people have established Mechanics' Institutions for themselves. and support them, while the people of France are taught gratuitously. There the new schools have all been founded by prefects and mayors under the sanction of the ministry; here, with one or two exceptions, the members of the government have stood aloof from this great work.

State of the Catholic Religion.] Previous to the Revolution, Roman Catholicism was the established Religion of France. But the temporal power of the Pope was never acknowledged by the clergy of the Gallican church; and every attempt of the court of Rome to infringe upon the liberties of that church, and render its clergy dependant upon the Papal court, was steadily resisted both by the sovereigns of France and the parliament of Paris. Long and violent struggles had, from time to time, arisen between the Popes and the French monarchs, respecting their different prerogatives, in which the former were always supported by the Jesuits. The Bourbon princes, however, steered their course very cautiously and cunningly. Voltaire has pleasantly remarked that: 'the king of France kisses the Pope's feet, and ties up his hands.' A keen contest took place between the Pope and Louis XIV. in 1678, respecting the *regalé*. This was a right by which the French king, upon the death of a bishop, laid claim to the revenues and fruits of his see, and also exercised several parts of the episcopal function until a new bishop was appointed. Louis was desirous that all the churches in his dominions should be subject to the *regalé*. The Pope, on the other hand, would not grant this claim in all its extent, nor consent to any augmentation of the prerogatives of this nature, which had formerly been enjoyed by the kings of France. The claims of the prince, and the remonstrances of the pontiff, were urged with great warmth and perseverance, and a sharp and violent con-

test ensued. Bulls and mandates were issued by the Pope, and penal laws and severe edicts by the monarch; the Pontiff refused to confirm the bishops that were nominated by Louis, the latter inducted them into their respective sees on his own responsibility; the Pope threatened Louis with the Divine vengeance, and issued bull upon bull, Louis convoked an assembly of 35 bishops, and as many deputies of the second order, which met at Paris in 1682, and drew up the ancient doctrine of the Gallican church, declaring the papal power to be merely spiritual, and also inferior to that of a general council, in the four following propositions: 1*st*, That neither St Peter nor his successors have received from God any power to interfere directly or indirectly, in what concerns the temporal interests of princes and sovereign States. That kings and princes cannot be deposed by ecclesiastical authority; nor their subjects freed from the sacred obligation of fidelity and allegiance, by the power of the Church, or the bulls of the Roman pontiff. 2*d*, That the decrees of the council of Constance, which maintained the authority of general councils as superior to that of the Pope in spiritual matters, are approved and adopted by the Gallican church. 3*d*, That the customs, rules, institutions, and observances which have been received in the Gallican church are to be observed inviolably. 4*th*, That the decisions of the Popes, in points of faith, are not infallible, unless attended with the consent of the church. These propositions were solemnly adopted by the whole assembly; and were proposed to the whole body of the clergy, and to all the universities throughout France, as a sacred and inviolable rule of truth. The obstinacy of pope Innocent XI. however, was not shaken by this momentous decision. The famous Bossuet wrote an elaborate defence, in two quarto volumes, of this famous declaration; but it was not published till 1730, as a reconciliation took place between Louis and the court of Rome, after the death of Innocent, by which the right of the regalé was yielded to the king. The four propositions relating to papal authority and jurisdiction were softened by royal permission, in private letters addressed to the pontiff by certain bishops; but they were neither abrogated by the prince nor renounced by the clergy; on the contrary, they remained in full force till the Revolution, and occupied an eminent place among the laws of the land; and these decrees of the Gallican council, sanctioned by royal authority, formed the basis of the Concordat between Buonaparte and the Pope, in 1801, when, after the revolutionary storm, Catholicism was again established in France.[11] Before the Revolution there were, in France, 19 archbishoprics,

[11] The tenets of the church of Rome are familiar to every reader. We must, however, observe, that a much greater degree of learning and knowledge, more diversity of religious sentiment, and a far greater portion of party-emulation and animosity have prevailed among the French Catholics than among those of any other country. Of all the numerous sects that flourished within the pale of papacy, the Jesuits were the most formidable, whether for numbers or talent or learning; and as they surpassed all other Catholic communities in their zeal for advancing the prerogatives of the Papal see, so they always possessed the greatest influence at the court of Rome. In France, however, where the peculiar tenets of the Jesuits were hostile to the liberties of the Gallican church, they produced a warm and strenuous opposition from the French ecclesiastics, but particularly from the *Jansenists*, whose religious opinions bore a near resemblance to those of the Calvinists, and were diametrically opposite to the doctrinal system of the Jesuits which was the same with that afterwards denominated Arminianism. The Jansenists derived their name from Cornelius Jansen, bishop of Ypris, in the now United Netherlands. This learned and pious personage had compiled a book entitled *Augustinus*—which, however, was not published till after his death, in 1638,—in which the doctrines of the eternal predestination ot men and angels, —the total corruption of human nature by the fall of man and its consequent complete inability to do any thing spiritually good,—the absolute necessity of Divine grace, to

118 bishoprics, 257 commanderies of the order of Malta, 16 heads of religious orders, 556 nunneries, 1356 monasteries, 700 convents of Cordeliers, 1240 priories, 15,200 chapels, having chaplains; 679 chapters, 1477 convents of all orders, and 40,000 parishes. The number of religious per-

produce a gracious change of heart and life,—the system of moral necessity,—the express limitation of the atonement to the elect only, in opposition to the Semi-pelagians,—and the perseverance of the saints, are illustrated for the most part in Augustine's own words, in order to show how these doctrines had been understood by that great man, and their conformity to the Scriptures and the Fathers of the church. This book was eagerly read, and produced a great change of religious sentiment upon these important though difficult and abstruse points in many of the French Catholics; and Jansen's book was viewed as a tacit confutation of the Jesuitical opinions concerning human liberty and the Divine decrees. It was written in direct opposition to the book of Lewis Molina, published in 1588; who maintained the consistency of the operations of Divine grace with the freedom of the human will, as consisting in a self-determining power; and who, in order to show this consistency, contended for the existence of a species of knowledge in God,—which he termed *Middle Knowledge*. God, seeing how men will act in every given circumstance, he argued, administers his grace in those circumstances in which he sees the human will is disposed to receive it; and, therefore, the human will is not the subject of a gracious divine operation, but always chooses, by a previous act of volition, whether to refuse or accept this grace; or, in other words, the Divine grace is solely indebted for its subsequent energy to the previous determination of the human will, which previous uninfluenced and indeterminate act of volition is the *primum mobile* in the whole affair of man's conversion and God's grace.

As Jansen's book was considered a formidable refutation of the Molinists, the Jesuits were alarmed, and not only took up the pen to vindicate the character and orthodoxy of their leader Molina, but also employed all their influence at the papal court to procure a public condemnation of Jansen's performance. Their influence and endeavours succeeded. The inquisitors at Rome began by prohibiting the perusal of the book; and, in 1641, Pope Urban, by a solemn bull, condemned it as infected with several heretical errors that had been long banished from the Church. These measures, instead of ruining, raised the reputation of the author and his performance, particularly in the Netherlands, where the followers of Augustine were numerous. The latter, and the doctors of Louvain, vigorously opposed the proceedings of the Jesuits, and the condemnation of their countryman Jansen. But the most formidable opposition took place in France; where the abbot of St Cyran, a man of an elegant genius, and equally revered for the extent of his learning, the lustre of his piety, and the sanctity of his manners, had procured the Jesuits many enemies, and Augustine many zealous friends. This respectable abbot was the intimate friend and relation of Jansen, and a most zealous and strenuous defender of his doctrines. On the other hand, the far greater part of the French clergy supported the cause of the Jesuits, whose religious tenets seemed more honourable to the dignity of human nature, more agreeable to its propensities, more suitable to the genius of Catholicism, and better adapted to promote and advance the interests of the papal see than the doctrine of St Augustine. The party of Jansen had also its patrons, and such as reflected honour on the cause. Several bishops of eminent piety, and some of the first and most elegant geniuses of the French nation, as Arnauld, Nicolle, Pascal, Quesnel, and the other famous and learned men known by the appellation of *Messieurs de Port Royal*, stood forward in defence. To these all who considered the standard and practice of piety in the Romish church as much inferior to what the Gospel requires, and who viewed Christian piety as the fruit of a vital and internal principle of grace in the soul, united themselves; and thus on one side were ranged numbers and power,—on the other, learning, genius, and piety.

The Jesuits came into the field armed not only with scholastic sophistry, papal bulls, royal edicts, and the protection of the majority of the nobles and bishops, but—as if all these had been insufficient—they employed the more formidable auxiliaries of the secular arm, and a competent number of dragoons. The Jansenists, however, stood their ground with steady intrepidity, and evaded the mortal blows that were aimed at them in papal bulls and royal mandates, by the help of nice distinctions, subtle interpretations, and even by dint of the very same sophistical refinements which they blamed in the Jesuits. They opposed the favour and applause of the people to the frowns and threatenings of nobles and bishops,—sophisms to sophisms,—invectives to invectives,—Divine Omnipotence to human power,—and boasted of the miracles which had been wrought in their behalf. Perceiving that their strongest arguments and most respectable authorities were insufficient to conquer their powerful opponents, they next endeavoured, by religious zeal and indefatigable application, to advance the true interests of piety and learning, and strengthen their interest with the people. Hence, they declared war against the enemies of the Romish church,—engaged in attempts to ensnare and ruin the Protestants,—took extraordinary pains to train up the youth of France in all the liberal arts and sciences,—drew up a variety of useful abridgments, containing the elements of philosophy and the learned languages,—published a multitude of treatises on

sons, of all orders, has been variously estimated; but the general opinion is, that the total number of male religious amounted to 130,000, and the female religious about 82,000. There is also great uncertainty of opinion, as to the amount of the income of the clergy before the Revolution. M.

practical religion and morality whose persuasive eloquence charmed all ranks and orders of men,—introduced and cultivated an easy, and agreeable manner of writing,—and gave accurate interpretations of several ancient authors. To all these recommendations they added others quite visionary and chimerical, pretending that God had been pleased by prodigies and stupendous miracles to interfere in their behalf, and prove effectually the doctrines of St Augustine. It will, undoubtedly, seem wonderful to every pious reader, how the Jansenists—many of whom were persons of exalted piety, sense, and learning—should have had recourse to such weapons of defence. The few following observations will perhaps account for this anomalous conduct. In the first place, they were still bigoted Catholics who in common with all the other parties of the Catholic community retained a blind veneration for the Holy Mother Church, even when fulminating maternal vengeance against her disobedient and gainsaying children. *2dly*, They firmly believed, that the power of working miracles still remained in the Catholic church, and conceiving themselves still members of the same body, expected the Deity would still manifest his approbation, as formerly, by endowing the advocates of the right cause with the power of working miracles to evidence its truth. *3dly*, If the appeal had been made, not to the Delphic oracles of the fathers, but to the clear and decisive testimony of Divine revelation, the controversy would have been brought into a much narrower compass, and far more easily decided; but as both parties, instead of appealing to the Bible, appealed to the fathers, the controversy could never be satisfactorily decided before a tribunal composed of such contradictory judges. *4thly*, If it should still be insisted, that though persons, whose piety is blended with the most superstitious credulity, may sincerely believe in miracles having been produced by them or upon them, yet, that it is impossible to believe that such men as Pascal, Arnauld, and others, should have believed or countenanced such impostures, we think the following remark will solve the difficulty: It is well-known that the church of Rome has a most profound veneration for the fathers of the church. It would have been well if this veneration had extended no farther than to admiration of their childish foibles; but it did not stop here; it canonized errors of the most dangerous kind, subversive of all morality. What we have particularly in view, is the following most immoral maxim, quoted by Mosheim, *Eccl. Hist. Cent.* 4. Part 2. Chap. 3. Sect. 16: "It is an act of virtue to deceive and lie, when, by such means, the interests of the church may be promoted!!" The honour of this flagitious maxim is originally due to no less a personage than the renowned Origen; who asserted the innocence of defending truth by falsehood and artifice, and employed it when he thought he could do it without danger of detection, as is manifest in his book against Celsus. This mischievous practice gave rise to the long list of ridiculous fables, lying legends, fictitious miracles, pious frauds, and all those evasions and compromises between conscience and expediency, which are still thought necessary and justifiable for the support of a corrupted priesthood, or an idolatrous worship. Now, as the morality of the fathers was so lax, that even the very best of them thought it lawful to indulge a little pious fraud, or utter a falsehood in support of a good cause, and as this maxim had been embodied in the code of Catholic morality, we need not be much surprised at finding the Jansenists, with all their piety, acting in conformity to the maxim, and making no scruple of deceiving the people, when they proposed by these delusions to confirm and propagate what they took to be truth. This is the only way in which we can account for the conduct of the more enlightened of that party in wilfully abetting and palming such forged miracles upon the people.

These miracles, for a time, did more service to the cause of the Jansenists than all their arguments put together; and they would have gotten the victory over the Jesuits, had not the cause of the latter been the cause of the Papacy; and had not the stability and grandeur of the Romish church depended, in a great measure, upon the success of the religious maxims of the Jesuits. In spite of the opposition of a great part of the Gallican clergy, a flaming bull was issued by his Holiness, in 1653; by which, four propositions, selected out of Jansen's book, were condemned as heretical, and a fifth declared to be rash, presumptuous, and dishonouring to the Supreme Being. Jansen's name was not mentioned in the bull; nor was it declared by the pontiff that the five propositions were maintained in Jansen's book in the sense in which he had condemned them. Hence the Jansenists and Augustinians defended themselves by a dexterous, though mean and disingenuous quibble, invented by the erudite and subtle Anthony Arnauld, by which, they affected to consider separately, in this controversy, the matter of doctrine and the matter of fact; that is, they considered themselves bound to believe, that the five propositions were justly condemned by the Pope,—but they maintained, that the Pope had not declared, and, consequently, that they were not bound to believe that these propositions were to be found in Jansen's book, in the sense in which he had condemned them. They were not, however, long permitted to enjoy this artful dis-

Neckar calculated it at £5,687,000 sterling; of which the cures of parishes had £1,859,375 sterling.

In consequence of the Revolution, Roman Catholicism suffered a total eclipse in France, and infidelity in every hideous form became the fashion

tinction of *de jure* and *de facto*. The Jesuits obtained a fresh papal bull, in 1656, expressly declaring, that the five propositions that had been condemned were the tenets of Jansen, and were contained in his book. Nay, in 1665, the Pope prescribed a declaration, to the same effect, to be subscribed by all who aspired after any preferment in the Church. The Jansenists immediately opposed it with vigour; they maintained the fallibility of the Pope in matters of fact,—and that his decisions being merely personal, were of no weight unless confirmed by a general council. The Jesuits on the other hand, declared, that the papal infallibility extended equally to matters of fact as to matters of doctrine and opinion; and that the decisions of the pontiff were to be received with implicit submission as the objects of a well-grounded and divine faith. At the court of Versailles, the Jesuits obtained the complete ascendency. The Jansenists, however, enjoyed a short breathing time in the succeeding pontificate of Clement IX. This was occasioned in 1669 by the resolute behaviour of three French bishops, who nobly refused to sign the papal declaration unconditionally; and when the pontiff ventured to menace them, nineteen other bishops rose, and adopted their cause in strong and pointed remonstrances both to the French king and the Roman pontiff. In 1679, however, the principal leaders of the Jansenists were compelled to consult their safety in timely flight; among others Anthony Arnauld fled to Holland, where the admirable eloquence and sagacity of this great man brought over not only the greater part of the Catholics of the Netherlands to his cause, but also all the Dutch Catholics, who still persevere, with the utmost steadiness in the Jansenistic principles, and, secure under the protection of the Dutch government, defy the threats and hold in derision the bulls of the Roman pontiff.

The cause of the Jansenists received fresh vigour by a French translation of the New Testament, made by the learned and pious Quesnel, a priest of the Oratory, and accompanied with practical annotations adapted to excite lively religious impressions in the minds of men. In this production, the quintessence of Jansenism is elegantly and artfully blended with these annotations. The success of this book alarmed the Jesuits; and a flaming bull, called *Unigenitus*, was fulminated in 1713, condemning Quesnel's New Testament, and pronouncing 101 propositions contained in it heretical. This bull was also called that of *the Constitution*, and offended many of the wiser and more pious Catholics who had no particular attachment to the peculiarities of Jansenism. So highly irritated were the Gallican clergy at the despotic proceedings of the pope and the Jesuits, that a proposition of revolting from the Papal see and uniting with the church of England was set on foot by the famous Du Pin, in 1720; but this project was stifled in its birth by court-intrigues, and the ambition of the worthless Du Bois, prime minister to the Regent Duke of Orleans, who had been long waiting for a cardinal's hat. Another flaming bull was issued in 1718, excommunicating all the opposers of the bull of 1713, and who, from their appealing from that bull to a general council, were denominated *Appellants*. In order that the bull might be carried into full effect, a law was passed, in 1748, by which all dying persons should be deprived of the privilege of extreme unction, unless with their dying breath they confessed their entire acquiescence in the bull Unigenitus, and their abhorrence of the heresies of the Jansenists. This occasioned fresh contests between the new archbishop of Paris—a determined enemy of the Jansenists—and the parliament of Paris, who imprisoned such of the clergy as refused to administer the sacrament to dying persons unless in the circumstances abovementioned. Other parliaments followed the example of that of Paris, and a war was instantly kindled between the civil and ecclesiastical authorities of the State. The king interposed in support of the clergy, and interdicted the parliaments from all interference in ecclesiastical proceedings; but the parliaments stood firm against the king and the Jesuits, imprisoned the refractory clergy, and by the aid of the military enforced the administration of the sacraments to the sick. The king enraged at the obstinacy of the parliaments, arrested four of the most obstinate members and imprisoned them, banishing the remainder to Poitiers, Auvergne, and Bourges, and issued letters-patent for a royal chamber to be held in their room, for the prosecution of civil and criminal cases. The counsellors refused to plead before these new courts; and the king was finally obliged to give way, and to recall the parliaments lest the nation should fall into a state of anarchy. After the peace of 1763, the parliaments, eager to follow up the victory over their religious enemies, directed all their efforts against the Jesuits; and that once powerful order was brought to the brink of destruction. The Jansenists had now better tempered weapons to defend themselves than visions and miracles at the tomb of the Abbé Paris. They laid open the moral system of the Jesuits, and awakened the attention of popish princes to their political power and insidious designs. The king ultimately withdrew his protection, and the parliament of Paris redoubled their efforts against them. The bulls, briefs, constitutions, and other regulations of the society were determined to be encroachments on civil authority, and abuses of govern-

of the day. It may be observed, however, that the clergy hastened their own destruction by their avarice and imprudent selfishness. Had they acquiesced in Calonne's reasonable proposal of aiding the necessities of the State by submitting to an equitable taxation, they would have prevented their own ruin and that of France. It was their obstinacy, together with that of the nobles and magistrates, that ultimately compelled the king to convoke the States-general in 1789, where the democratic party being equal in number, and superior in popular influence to both the clergy and the nobles, carried every thing their own way and soon annihilated king, nobles, and clergy.

Under the republican government the wealth and landed property of the clergy were seized and sold; and even the scanty pittance, allowed them by the State, in lieu of their former princely revenue, was withdrawn, and the enthusiasm of infidelity for a time persecuted religion in France, with all the bitterness and all the cruelty that was ever exercised by the most intolerant fanaticism. The intolerant Catholic clergy were now doomed to suffer all those woes which their predecessors had inflicted upon the French Protestants and their brethren the Jansenists in former reigns. The number of emigrant clergy, towards the end of 1795, amounted to 28,724, and many more emigrated afterwards; yet, if we are to believe the emigrant priests, the Jansenists readily took the oaths to the French republic; and amidst all the shoals of emigrant priests who came over to this country, not one Jansenist could be discovered. In order to obliterate every trace of Christianity, and every sense of religion, the *decemvirs*—as Robespierre, Carnot, and their colleagues, were called—abolished the old calendar, and employed men of science to make a new one. By this each month was divided into three decades of ten days each, the Christian sabbath was abolished, and the tenth day of every decade was fixed as a day of rest, evidently intending by this new political institution, to supersede the worship and ceremonies of that religion which they wished if possible to eradicate. But reflecting how prone the multitude are to superstition, they consecrated *Reason* as an object of worship, and a festival was celebrated in honour of her in the cathedral at Paris, where she was personated by a woman, Madame Desmoulines, who was afterwards guillotined. Bayle's paradoxical assertion of the innocency of atheism, has been satisfactorily disproved in France by a long and wide train of evils which flowed from the inculcation of atheism as the subject of popular belief; and a pretty large number of French theorists, who stupidly believed in the virtue of savages, received the strongest possible confutation of their doctrine, in being devoured by these majestic beings. Robespierre, Carnot, and their associates, went boldly to work by teaching the doctrine that death was an eternal sleep. After the overthrow of the terrorists, the *moderes* granted a toleration to all forms of worship, the churches were again restored to their wonted uses, and the Catholics obtained a respite from those sufferings which they had endured from the Atheistical Jacobins. Under the government of the Directory, however, they were again exposed to persecution. A new infidel sect had arisen in France, under the designation of *Theophilanthropists*, or lovers of God and man. Assuming reason as their sole guide in matters of religion—a principle which they held in common with Deists of every description,

ment, the society itself was finally dissolved, and the members declared incapable of holding any place whether civil or sacred, their colleges were seized, their immense wealth confiscated, and the order annihilated.

and Unitarians—they professed a belief in the existence, perfections, and providence of God, and the doctrine of a future state, and pretended to found their moral system upon the basis of love to God and good will to men. La Reveillier Lepaux was the apostle of this sect, whose principles, as Mr Belsham admitted, differed in nothing from those of modern Unitarians, but in denying the resurrection of *a dead man*.

It was one of the first steps of Napoleon, when he became possessed of sovereign power, to employ a church-establishment as an imaginary fence to it. Perceiving that the Anarchists had failed in the attempt to eradicate all religious belief, and that a great part of the nation were still attached to the church of Rome, and that those clergy who had sacrificed their temporal interests to their religious principles were revered by many of the people, he determined to make the whole of the clergy his friends by formally re-establishing the Romish church. With this view a convention or concordat was entered into between pope Pius VII. and the first consul; by which it was provided, that the Catholic religion should be that of the State,—that the nominal prelates of France should give up their sees, as required by the Pope, in order to receive them at the hands of the new government,—that the nomination of all vacant sees should be in the first consul, and that of parish priests, in the bishops,—that the bishops and clergy should, before they entered upon their functions, swear fidelity to the existing government, and engage to discover any designs against the State that came to their knowledge; and, as nearly all the ecclesiastical property had been alienated during the Revolution, it was ordained, that it should remain in the hands of those who had obtained it, but that the State should provide for the maintenance of the clergy, and that all the rights and the prerogatives which the former French monarchs possessed should be confirmed to the supreme ruler of the French nation. Among other articles of the concordat, the following enactments were made, namely: That no bull, brief, or other proclamation of the court of Rome, should be effectual in France without the consent of the government; that no nuncio or legate should be permitted to exercise his functions in France without the consent of the government, or in a way which might derogate from the privileges of the Gallican church; that the national council, or diocesan synod, might be held without the consent of government; and that all disturbances on account of religion were to be under the cognizance of that council. France was divided into 10 archbishoprics, containing 50 bishoprics. The annual allowance of archbishops was 15,000 livres, or £625; that of the bishops 10,000 livres, or £416 13*s*. 4*d*. Buonaparte, in thus re-establishing the papal hierarchy, had an imperial diadem and consecration in view. He, however, reaped but little advantage from his system of church-government: principally from the sternness and irritability of his temper which could not persist long in apparent veneration for a power of his own creating, but exposed the new prelates to contempt and neglect. The more conscientious of the clergy kept aloof from his court; they could not brook his contemptuous treatment of the Holy Father, whom he kept as a kind of state-prisoner, after having brought him all the way from Rome to Paris, in order to place the imperial diadem upon his head; and the Pope himself felt indignant at being made a mere tool to serve Napoleon's interested and selfish ambition. Though stript of all his temporalities, he still asserted his high dignity, and spurned at being made a passive instrument in the hands of the very man whom he had crowned; he therefore sternly refused to ordain such as Buonaparte

had nominated to vacant sees; and the bishops, on the other hand—though willing enough to flatter the emperor, and to offer up blasphemous thanksgivings for the success of his arms—would not support him in opposition to the Pope, or act in defiance of the Catholic church. The Gallican church, consequently, remained in a comparatively disorganized state during the whole of Napoleon's reign.

The revolution of 1814, set the Pope at liberty; and measures were adopted by Louis XVIII. to re-organize the ancient ecclesiastical regime. The following is a view of the clergy in France in 1828:—Five cardinals, one of whom, the archbishop of Paris, has a salary of 100,000 francs yearly, or £4,083 6*s*. 8*d*., the others 30,000 francs each or £1,250; 20 peers of France, one minister of department, 4 members of the privy council, 14 archbishops, of whom those not cardinals receive a salary of 25,000 francs or £1,041 13*s*. 4*d*., 66 bishops, whose salary is 15,000 francs or £625, 5 cordon bleus of the order of the Saint Esprit, 468 vicars-general, receiving from 4,000 to 2,000 francs, 684 titular canons, or prebendaries, receiving from 2,400 to 1,500 francs, 1,788 honorary canons, 3,085 curés, or rectors, receiving from 1,600 francs or £66 16*s*. 8*d*. to 1,100 francs or £45 16*s*. 8*d*., 22,475 curates, receiving from 900 to 750 francs or from £37 10*s*. to £31 3*s*. 9*d*., 5,756 vicars, 439 chaplains, 839 almoners, 1,976 priests resident in parishes, or authorized to preach or confess, and 1,044 directors and professors of seminaries. The number of priests considered necessary by the bishops amounts to 52,437; which, allowing for dissenters, would give one priest to 550 souls. The total of priests actually doing duty is 36,649; 15,808 are then wanting of the number regarded as necessary by the heads of the church. There are 13,493 priests employed who are more than sixty years of age, and 2,328 whose age and infirmities render them incapable of doing duty. The priests who died in fulfilment of their functions in 1827, were 1,149. The ordinations in 1827 amounted to 5,259: *viz*. for priests 1,852; for deacons 1,584; for subdeacons 1,823. The number of students was 44,244, of whom 9,286 were theologians, 3,725 philosophers, 21,118 in the seminaries, 7,761 in the colleges, and 2,355 in the houses of the Curés. The total of religious women is 19,340, among whom are the Sisters of the Cross, of the Saint Sacrament; of the Presentation, of Saint Claire, of Notre-Dame, of Sacres Cœurs de Jesus, et de Marie, of Sainte Marie de Qouterrault, the Annonciades, the Benedictines de l'Adoration Perpetuelle, the Clarisses, the Hospitalèers, and the other religious establishments. By right, or in fact, there exist 3,024 female religious establishments; 1,983 definitively authorized, and 1,041 in expectation. From St Denis, the first bishop of Paris, till the present time, the capital of the kingdom reckons 110 bishops, and 13 archbishops; six of these prelates are in the rank of saints, and thirteen have been cardinals. In the University, without speaking of the primary institutions, and the brothers of the Christian schools, there are 673 ecclesiastics. There are in the Institute 5; of which there are an archbishop, a bishop, an ecclesiastical peer, and two abbes. The Roman Catholic church costs the government 40,000,000 francs or £1,600,000 per annum.

State of the Protestant Religion.] The French Protestants for a long time adhered to the doctrinal system of Calvin; but about the middle of the 17th century, a considerable change was produced in their religious creed by Moses Amyraut, who introduced a new system, called *Universalism*, from his maintaining that God wills alike the salvation of all man-

kind, and endows all with an universal grace, or the power of believing,—and that the benefits of Christ's atonement were procured for *all* mankind alike, but that none can be made partakers of these benefits unless they believe in Christ,—and that although all have the power of believing, yet God does not grant to all that assistance which is necessary to make them wisely improve that power. This system—which laboured under a capital defect in representing God as desiring a thing which, in order to its attainment, requires a degree of his assistance and succour which he refuseth to many—gradually became the prevailing doctrine of the French Protestants, and was defended with great ability by Daille, Blondel, Mestrezat, and Claude. During the days of their prosperity, the French Protestants had several flourishing universities and academies, furnished with professors of eminent ability. The chief of these were Sedan and Saumur; and several of our persecuted Scotch Presbyterian divines, taught in these universities, as John Cameron, Sharp, and More.

After the death of Louis XIV. the Protestants, who had been dreadfully persecuted during his reign, met with milder treatment. In 1745 however, a rigorous enforcement of the penal statutes, against Protestants, and the harbourers of Protestants, was put in execution, and the district of Montauban was covered with misery and desolation. The writings of Voltaire on toleration, and Rousseau's eloquent defence of the unfortunate Calas, contributed to blunt the edge of fiery zeal against the Protestants; and the destruction of the influence and existence of the Jesuits, these most inveterate enemies of Protestantism, removed one great bar in the way of lenient treatment. The illustrious Turgot, a man of liberal sentiments and a comprehensive mind, endeavoured, during his short administration, to procure a repeal of the laws against Protestants; but the design was thwarted by the opposition of the clergy. In 1787, the Protestants obtained from Louis XVI. complete and full toleration, together with all the rights of French citizens, and these privileges were confirmed in 1790 by a decree of the national assembly. Rabaut de St Etienne, a Protestant minister, was president of the constituent assembly, and a warm advocate for political and religious freedom. When Buonaparte assumed the imperial purple, and for political purposes restored the Christian religion, which the Convention had abolished in France, that he might not offend the Protestants by his re-establishment of the papal hierarchy, he granted them toleration, under certain restrictions however, calculated to secure their subservience to his will. Among other regulations, he reserved to himself the nomination of the professors in their universities, and the power of appointing by his council the rules for their government. No person could exercise the pastoral office among the Protestants but such as produced a certificate of having studied in the seminary of his religion appointed by the State. Government reserved to itself the cognizance of every doctrine or alteration of doctrine to be taught, and the dissentions of ministers and their designs were under the cognizance of the council of State. The form and constitution of their consistories and synods were prescribed by the government, without whose authority the number of pastors in a consistory could not be augmented. Pastors were not to resign their office until government should inspect and approve their motives. The election of a pastor was not valid until sanctioned by the supreme magistrate, who thus usurped to himself the patronage of all the Protestant churches. No synod could meet without the leave of the government, signified by the prefect of the department; the synodal meet-

ings could not be prolonged beyond six days, and their decisions were not to be held valid until approved by the government. This slavish system of insidious policy was nevertheless called by Bounaparte and his advocates, 'a full and free toleration.' In Britain, however, it would have been more justly denominated an intolerable persecution. The Restoration confirmed to the Protestants of France all their civil rights. In 1814 and 1815, indeed, some fanatical Romanists succeeded in exciting the blind populace against them in the south of France, under the pretext that they were too much attached to the imperial government. These excesses, however, were terminated by the firmness with which Louis XVIII. maintained the rights conferred upon the Protestants by the charter. Occasionally, indeed, the French journals have recorded instances of petty annoyance; but application to the superior tribunals never fails to procure to the Protestants satisfactory redress. The French Protestants are divided into two communions: *viz.* 1*st.* The Lutherans, who adhere to the confession of Augsburg; and 2*d.* The Reformed or Calvinists. There are different computations of their numbers, some reckoning the total Protestant population of France so low as 1,000,000,—others stating it at 3,000,000. A French Protestant clergyman, who has bestowed considerable attention on the statistics of Protestantism in France, and with whom we have corresponded on this subject, has informed us that 2,000,000 is rather under than above the number, according to his calculations. In the department of the Upper and Lower Rhine, in the province of Alsace, the Lutheran Protestants are to the Catholics as 3 to 2. In the department of the Gard, in the province of Languedoc, the Protestants of the reformed church are equal if not superior in numbers to the Catholics. It is impossible to say in what proportion they exist in the other departments; but they are most numerous in the departments already mentioned, and in those of Deux-Sevres in Poitou, Charante-inferieure in Saint-Onge and Angoumois, Gironde in Lot-et-Garonne, Dordogne in Guyenne, Drome in Dauphine, and in Ardeche, Lozere, Gard, Herault, Tarn, and Tarn-et-Garonne in Languedoc. At Paris their numbers are about 30,000. The Protestant pastors receive a certain allowance from government. The churches are divided into three classes, according to the population of the towns or districts in which they are situated, and the pastors are paid accordingly. The 1*st* class comprehends all towns which have 30,000 inhabitants or upwards, and the annual allowance to the pastors in these towns is 2,000 francs or £80. The 2*d* class comprehends towns whose population is from 30,000 to 5,000, in which the allowance is 1,500 francs or £60. The 3*d* class comprehends all towns from 5,000 to 1,000 inhabitants, in which the allowance is 1,200 francs or £48. Where the population is under 1,000 no allowance is made, and of course there are many places where this is the case, and in all such the pastor depends entirely on the contributions of his people. From the Budget of the Minister of the Interior, presented to the Chambers in 1825, we find that 24,000 francs was granted for the support of the Protestant colleges, and 50,000 francs or £2,041 13*s.* 4*d.* for the building or repairing of their churches. The pastors of the reformed church generally receive a sum from the public functionaries out of their town-funds, besides a gift from their respective churches proportioned to their sense of their pastor's deserts; which two sums generally make up the pastor's salary to double the allowance from government. The pastors of the Lutheran church, besides being paid by the government, have a house and garden, and some other emoluments arising

from the goods or lands of the church, but they receive nothing from town-funds. The Protestant church costs the government 676,000 francs, or £27,040. An ordonnance is expected to be passed this year (1829) to increase the stipends of the Protestant clergy. The Protestants of the reformed church have 96 consistories, 438 churches, and 305 pastors paid by government. A *consistoire* or consistory consists of the pastors of a district and 12 laymen, who manage the internal affairs of the churches in the district, and the division of the poor's-funds. The reformed church has no supreme court at present. The general consistory is the supreme court of the Lutheran church. We do not know precisely the number of its churches and pastors: but the former are calculated to amount to about 330; the number of pastors paid by government in 1825 was 220. The popular instruction of the French Protestants is in general superior to that of the Catholics; but the religious and moral state of the former would not be reckoned high in this country. Twelve years ago there were very few evangelical ministers in France; their numbers have greatly increased of late, but by far the greater part are tainted with Arminianism; there are also a few Socinians, Arians, and Pelagians amongst them. There are two theological academies for the Protestants of France; the one at Strasburg and the other at Montauban. The former is chiefly attended by Lutherans. It is to the high honour of a country which was once so fanatical, persecuting, and intolerant, that the immense majority of the population attached to the religion of the State do not now enjoy the slightest exclusive privilege. Protestants are admissible to all public posts, and, in fact, hold them to an extent beyond the proportion of their number. They are electors, and eligible equally with Catholics, who frequently return them, without inquiring into their religious faith. There are among them peers, deputies, generals, prefects, presidents of the royal courts, councillors of state and of the first tribunals, mayors, &c. We have even seen, both under the old and the new regime, several Protestants in the French ministry.

CHAP. V.—GOVERNMENT—REVENUE—MILITARY AND MARINE FORCE.

The old government of France, previous to the Revolution, was monarchy in its most objectionable form. When that important event first occurred, a limited monarchy was established, but that did not satisfy the ardent leaders of the Revolution,—a mania for political chemistry had seized the nation, and nothing but political experiments would please them. Upon the sanguinary death of the king, a republic was erected; but this name, so frequently the boast of France, was soon merged in that of empire; and Frenchmen gloried in having established that dignity, which so very recently they had denounced and laboured to exterminate in every quarter of Europe, as inimical to the liberty and happiness of man. When the brother of Louis XVI. was restored to the throne of his ancestors, a new constitution was presented to the senate. It was read twice; and a commission being appointed to consider it, a report was made on the 5th of April, 1814, when the constitution was unanimously adopted. After the arrival of Louis in France, the constitution drawn up by the Senate was presented to him; and, with several modifications, it was accepted, and

presented to the French parliament in the form of a charter. The following is a literal copy of this document:

Public Rights of the French.] All Frenchmen are equally under the protection of the law, whatever may be their rank or title. They are to contribute without distinction in proportion to their property, to the public burthens. They are all equally admissible to civil and military employments. Individual liberty is equally protected; no one can be prosecuted or arrested, except in cases provided by the law, and in the manner which the law prescribes. Every one may follow his own religion, and shall enjoy the same protection in his mode of worship. Nevertheless, the Roman Catholic and Apostolic religion is the religion of the State. Frenchmen have a right to print and publish their opinions, conforming to the laws made for repressing the abuse of that liberty. All property is irrevocable, without any exception of that which is called national. The State may require the sacrifice of private property, where it can be legally proved that the public interest requires it; but the proprietor shall be previously indemnified. The conscription is abolished by law.

Form of the King's Government.] The person of the king is inviolable and sacred. His ministers are responsible. The executive power belongs solely to the king. The king is the supreme chief of the State. He commands the land and sea-forces, declares war, and makes peace and treaties of alliance and commerce; has the appointment to all the offices of public administration, and issues the necessary orders and regulations for the execution of the laws and the safety of the State. The legislative power is exercised collectively by the king, the house of peers, and the house of deputies of the departments. The king proposes the law. Every law is to be discussed freely, and voted by the majority of each of the two chambers. The houses have the faculty to entreat the king to propose a law, and to suggest to his majesty the points which they think it ought to contain. If the proposition is adopted by the other chamber, it shall be laid before the king. If it is rejected, it shall not be proposed during the same session. The king alone sanctions and promulgates the law. The civil list shall be fixed during the continuance of the present reign, by the first legislative assembly after the return of the king.

The Chamber of Peers.] The chamber of peers, which is an essential part of the legislative power, shall be convoked by the king at the same time with the chamber of deputies. The sessions of both to commence and terminate at the same time. The chancellor of France presides in the chamber of peers. The nomination of peers of France belongs to the king; their number is unlimited. The king can vary the dignities, and may grant them for life, or make them hereditary. The peers take their place at 25, and have a deliberative voice at 30. All deliberations of this chamber to be secret. The princes of the blood, though peers by birth, can only take their seat by order of the king, expressed each session by a message. No peer can be arrested except with the authority of the chamber, and must be tried by it in criminal matters. This chamber to take cognizance of the crime of high treason.

Chamber of Deputies of the Departments.] The chamber of deputies to be chosen by the electoral colleges; the deputies to be elected for five years, and in such a manner that the chamber shall be renewed every year by a fifth. No deputy to be admitted under 40, nor unless he pays 1000 francs in direct taxes. No person to vote for deputies under 30, nor unless he pays in direct taxes 300 livres. The president to be chosen by the court out of five names. The sittings to be public, but the demand of five members shall make it a secret committee. All amendments of laws must be proposed by the king. All propositions relative to taxes must originate with this chamber. The consent of both chambers and of the king must be necessary to form a law. The land-tax is imposed for only one year; indirect taxes for many. The king convokes the two chambers every year; he prorogues them; and can dissolve that of the deputies; but must then convoke a new session within three months. Members can neither be prosecuted nor arrested without written permission of the chamber

The Ministry.] The ministers may be members of either house; they have the right of entry into both, and must be heard.—They may be impeached for treason or extortion (but no other crime) by the chamber of deputies and can be tried only by the peers.

The Judicial Power.] All the judges are named by the king, and are irremovable. The constitution of juries is preserved; but changes recommended by experience may be made. The king can pardon offences and commute punishments.

Individual Rights Guaranteed by the State.] The military embodied on service, officers and soldiers on half pay, widows, officers, and soldiers, who have pensions, shall preserve their rank, honours, and pensions.—The public debt is guaranteed; every kind of engagement entered into by the State with its creditors is inviolable.—

The ancient nobility resume their titles, the new preserve theirs. The king creates nobles at pleasure; but he bestows upon them only rank and honour, without any exemption from the offices and duties of the State.—The legion of honour is continued.—Given at Paris, the year of grace 1814, 19th of our reign.

(Signed) LOUIS.

Administration.] There are ten ministers and one secretary of state,—a minister for the administration of justice, called the great judge,—a minister for the foreign department,—for the home department,—for the finances,—a chancellor of the exchequer,—a war minister,—a minister for the administration of the war department,—for the administration of naval and colonial affairs,—for the general police of the kingdom,—and for the religious institutions of the country. There is an inferior court of justice in every district, and a justice of the peace in every canton. There are a number of courts of appeal, and two supreme tribunals. Each department is administered by a prefect, and as many sub-prefects as it contains arrondissements or districts. The details of the administration descend from the sub-prefects to the mayors, who are not chosen by the people, but by the government. France is at present governed by a compact body of laws promulgated in 1804.

Nobility and Orders of Merit.] There formerly existed in France no fewer than 365,000 noble families, of whom, however, only 4,120 were of ancient nobility. In 1791 nobility was abolished in France; the imperial government gave existence to a new creation of nobles on the 1st of March 1808: and the Restoration re-established the ancient nobility and acknowledged the rights of the new. The titles of nobility in France are princes, dukes, marquises, çounts, viscounts, barons, and chevaliers: The most ancient French order is that of *St Michael*, founded by Louis XI. in 1469, and reduced by Louis XIV. to 100 chevaliers, it is destined as an honorary recompense to savans and artists of distinguished merit. Henry III. in 1578–9, created the order of *St Esprit*, which is composed of 100 chevaliers, and includes the princes of the blood and the royal family. In 1693, Louis XIV. created the royal and military order of *St Louis*, as a reward for distinguished military services; it is divided into grand-crosses, commanders, and chevaliers. Louis XV. in 1759, instituted an order of military merit for Protestant officers. There also exists a royal order of *St Lazare*, of which the foundation is not known: it was united to that of *Notre-Dame du Mont-Carmel*, instituted by Henry IV. in 1608. Both these orders were confirmed by Louis XIV. and Louis XV. though they comprise very few members. Under the consular government the *Légion-d'-Honneur* was instituted with the view of bestowing an honorary reward on such as had rendered distinguished military or civil service to the nation. It was created on the 19th of May 1802, and was divided into 16 cohorts, with a revenue of 5,000,000 francs. At the Restoration this order was re-organized under the name of *Ordre royal de la Légion-d'Honneur*. It is composed of 80 grand crosses, 160 grand-officers, 400 commanders, 2000 officers, and an unlimited number of chevaliers. The administration of this order is presided over by a grand-chancellor, who receives the revenue, and distributes the pensions accorded to the members. There are three establishments at St Denis, Paris, and Loges, for the education of 900 of the daughters of the *legionnaires*, at the expense of the order.

Revenue.] In forming a political estimate of any country, its finances claim particular attention; but no where does this subject assume greater importance than when writing of France, since a derangement in the state

of its revenue, if it did not produce, at least accelerated that stupendous event, the Revolution. The taxes paid under the old government might be divided into the five branches of direct taxes, monopolies, excise-duties, custom and transit-duties, and stamps. The produce of the direct taxes amounted to nearly one-third of the whole revenue. One of these, the capitation tax—which fell very lightly on the nobility, and not at all on the clergy—yielded one-fifth of this sum. The other direct taxes were the *vingtiemes*, nearly resembling our land-tax; and the *taille*, another species of land-tax, so unequally levied that it fell almost wholly on the poorest proprietors. The monopolies were that of salt—which, under the name of *gabelle*, was levied by government on about two-thirds of the kingdom—and those of snuff, and spirituous liquors, which were levied only in certain provinces. The excise comprehended the taxes on leather, starch, cards, iron, oil, and other contributions. The transit-duties included not only the customs payable on the export and import of merchandise at the sea-ports but also those which were levied at the gates, and a variety of tolls of different kinds. The stamp-duties were levied on almost all kinds of contracts, and affected all kinds of property. According to Neckar, the expenses of collection, under the old government amounted to 10½ per cent on all the taxes paid by the people. At that period, the farmers-general, the general and particular receivers, and all the subalterns in the service of the treasury, advanced sums to the government as securities for the faithful discharge of their duties. For these securities, they were paid an interest of 5, and, in some cases, of 7 per cent. At the Revolution, the taxes on consumption were completely abolished, and replaced in conformity with the doctrines of the economists by a direct tax on the land, or *impôt-foncier*. The present regular revenue is derived from the land-tax, which is about 15 per cent. on the revenue of landed property,—a personal tax,—a *mobilier* or a tax on moveables and sumptuaries,—a house and window-tax,—the *patentes* on trades and professions,—a tax on sales equal to 5 per cent on the value transferred,—the produce of the national domains and forests,—the customs,—the post-office,—the lottery,—a tax on gambling-houses,—the salt tax,—and some other sources. All these taxes, in 1803, produced a total sum of 569,500,000 francs, and the expenditure, the same year, amounted to 589,500,000 francs: the expense of collection being between 15 and 16 per cent.

The revenue in the reign of Louis XIV. amounted, in 1695, to 372,300,000 livres, or £15,512,500 sterling; the expenditure to £10,681,863 8*s*. 4*d*. leaving a surplus of £4,824,275 11*s*. 8*d*. if we can credit the author of the *Atlas Historique*. But the extraordinary exertions made by Louis in the Succession war, combined with the ill-success of his arms, occasioned an accumulation of expenditure far above the revenue; and the succeeding administrations were forced to adopt the expedient of mortgaging the revenue, and thus, transferring to their successors a load of gradually accumulating debt, which, in its progress, at length overturned the government, and introduced a series of revolutions to which nothing parallel has yet appeared in the history of man. In 1788, the revenue, according to Young, amounted in the gross to 680,664,943 livres, or £29,782,492 sterling; from which we must deduct the expense of collection, amounting to 57,665,000 livres, or £2,522,843 sterling: leaving the net-receipt in the hands of government £27,259,649 sterling. The revenue of 1789 was 470,038,245 livres, or £20,568,019 16*s*. 6*d*.; and

the revenue of 1790 was 293,493,389 livres, or £12,038,202 16*s*. 6*d*. sterling: leaving a deficiency in 1790, of 176,544,856 livres, or £7,723,837 sterling, short of the revenue of 1789, and not equalling, by one-half, that of 1788. The glaring deficiency of 1790 was, indeed, partially made up by the expedient of carrying the plate to the mint, and, by patriotic gifts and contributions to the amount of 24,338,682 livres, or £1,064,819 sterling.

The national debt in 1764, was estimated at 2,400,000,000 livres, or £105,000,000 sterling. An addition of 1,500,000,000 livres, or £65,625,000 sterling, was caused by the American war alone; so that, in 1790, the debt had accumulated to £244,422,099, and the interest to £11,369,357 sterling. In 1792, the total debt was 6,500,000,000 livres, or £284,000,000 sterling, while the annual deficiency in the revenue was 250,000,000 livres, or £10,907,500 sterling. The following is a comparison of the progress of the debt of France with that of Britain till the period of the Revolution:

In 1763,	the debt of	Britain was	£133,957,270 sterling.
——64,	. .	France	105,000,000
——92,	. . .	France	284,000,000
——93,	. .	Britain	227,989,148

From this, it clearly follows, that, in the period between 1763 and 1793, the debt of France was more rapidly augmented than that of Britain; but, since 1793, the debt of Britain has much more rapidly increased than that of France, or, indeed, of any other country. The practice of farming the taxes for a certain sum to the highest bidder, who was, of course, supported by the arm of the military power in collecting the taxes thus farmed to him, rendered the French government obnoxious, and the farmers-general odious to the people; nevertheless many of the taxes were most shamefully evaded, or altogether unproductive, at the period which immediately preceded the Revolution. The evil was not irremediable, had the people of France met their difficulties with boldness and patriotism; and had the financial propositions of that honest minister, Calonne, for re-establishing the finance and public credit of the kingdom, been acceded to. He proposed to the Notables, that a territorial impost, extending to all classes of subjects should be sanctioned by the assembly; that the clergy who had been hitherto exempted from all taxes, should contribute their share to relieve the public burdens; that the management and receipt of the taxes already existing should be the subject of minute, impartial, and strict investigation; and that, if these measures were found insufficient to cure the growing evil of a deficiency of revenue and accumulation of debt, the royal domains should be mortgaged. But it was the misfortune of this able, though unfortunate minister, to be opposed in his plan of equalizing the public burdens by the selfishness and stupid impolicy of the privileged orders,—the clergy, and the nobility. The two latter classes vainly imagined that the people would quietly and patiently bear every additional burden which might be imposed upon them, whilst they themselves were wallowing in wealth and profusion; and were supported in their opposition to Calonne's equitable proposal, by the magistrates of the different cities in France, who were also hitherto exempted from paying taxes. The mass of the people, who ought to have regarded Calonne as their friend, stood aloof, and Louis was not possessed of sufficient firmness to support and protect his minister. Assailed, therefore, by the selfish nobility, clergy, and magistrates, unbefriended by the people,

and unprotected by the weak and irresolute monarch, Calonne was, in April 1788, compelled to quit his official situation, and retire to Britain. In the beginning of 1794, the enormous expenditure occasioned by the war, combined with an alarming and increasing deficiency of revenue arising from the total stagnation of trade and commerce, had increased the national debt to 8,000,000,000 livres, or £350,000,000; and, in the end of 1795, according to Calonne, it amounted to 20,000,000,000 livres, or £840,000,000. Even this sum was subsequently prodigiously increased, insomuch that the interest only amounted to 2,000,000,000 livres, or £87,500,000 sterling. The assignats issued by the revolutionary government, upon securities arising from national property of all kinds, suffered such a dreadful depreciation in their value, that Bourdon de L'Oise declared, that all France did not contain rags sufficient to make assignats, if the claims of the national annuitants were attended to! In order to get rid of this difficulty, the following very simple expedient was adopted. On the 10th of September 1797, the Council of five hundred received a message, stating that the national debt was reduced two-thirds, or from 24,000,000,000 livres, or £1,050,000,000, to 8,000,000,000 livres, or £350,000,000. Indignation was expressed at this extraordinary message, but the reporter coolly replied, that "the justice of nations had its limits." Thus 16,000,000,000 livres, or £700,000,000 were by a mere arbitrary act of the revolutionary government struck off from the national debt, and the national creditors obliged to accept of 6*s.* 8*d.* in the pound sterling. These very creditors had indeed previously lost an equal sum by the manner in which their interest for some time had been paid; for Cambon stated, that on the 2d January 1795, 1,000,000,000 livres in assignats, or £43,600,000 went annually to pay the interest of the national debt; which assignats eventually suffered a depreciation of 200 to 1, and, at last, of even 2,000 to 1. But this was not all; for the debt so reduced was afterwards reduced two-thirds more, leaving only 2,666,000,000 livres, or £116,337,500; and even for this debt, in its most reduced shape, the French government paid no interest for many years. The wasteful expenditure of the republican government was such, that all the money effected by the sale of national lands, royal domains, the landed and personal property of the church, and the confiscated, immoveable, and personal property of the emigrants, was inadequate to meet it. But, after the republican armies had passed the frontier, and the war was carried into the territories of the allies, the plunder of continental Europe replenished the exhausted coffers of France; so that we need not be surprised, if the national debt, reduced as we said above to £116,337,500, did not accumulate, or was rather diminished. "In future," said Duhesme, "instead of attaching any conquered provinces to France, would it not be better to make them furnish us with provisions and stores, and conduct some of the Belgic saints to France?" "Certainly," replied the whole assembly with delight, and the proposition was instantly sent to the committee of public safety. The revenue for the year 1804 amounted, in actual receipts, to 764,000,000 francs, and the expenditure to 768,000,000 francs, or £32,000,000, according to Barbie Marbois. Of this sum, 7,000,000 francs were assigned for repairing the public roads; 2,000,000 livres for the noble road by Mount Simplon into Italy; 2,000,000 francs for the great bridges; 6,000,000 francs for canals and drying marshes; 2,500,000 francs for internal navigation; and 3,000,000 francs for restoring the seaports; while 84,000,000 francs, or upwards of four millions sterling, went

annually to pay the interest of the public debt, according to Walckenaer. The reader must not imagine, that the foregoing revenue could support an enormous standing military force of upwards of 700,000 men, or that 768,000,000 francs was their real expenditure. It was utterly impossible that France could support the warlike expenditure during the first ten years of Buonaparte's reign, without adding enormously to the national debt, already reduced, by the flagrant injustice of the revolutionary government, to £116,337,500; and reduced still farther before the year 1804. She had already annihilated all her internal funds; and her foreign commerce and internal trade were also nearly ruined. In such circumstances, recourse could only be had either to increased taxation, or to a system of plunder. Tribute, contribution, plunder, and pillage, were the sources from which the annual expenditure of Buonaparte was principally drawn.[12] The whole amount of contributions of various kinds levied on the continent, from 1795 till 1814, amounted to £980,297,708, excluding the destruction of property, and the maintenance of French armies at the expense of the inhabitants.

According to a pamphlet, published at Paris in 1814, the revenue of France, under Napoleon, amounted to 1,500,000,000 francs, or more than 65 millions sterling. It was not till some time after the commencement of the Spanish war, in 1808, that the revenue began to fall off, as owing to the obstinate and determined resistance of the Spaniards, and the wasted state of the Peninsula, the war could not pay itself: so that, in a very few years, there was an addition of 1,645,469,000 francs to the national debt. Previous to this period, the interest of the national debt, according to the report of the minister of finance, on 7th January 1810, amounted to 111 millions francs; calculating at 5 per cent. the principal would amount to 2,220,000,000 francs; which, with the previous sum of 1,645,469,000 francs, will make a total of 3,865,469,000 francs, or £175,000,000, as the debt of France at the accession of Louis XVIII.,—a sum almost equal to the debt at the end of the American war, notwithstanding all the tyranny and plunder of the Revolution. Until the accession of Louis XVIII. it was not known that the budgets of 1812 and 1813 presented a deficit of 312 millions of francs; and the receipts of 1814 were calculated at 520,000,000 francs, and the expenditure at 827,415,000, francs, leaving a deficit of 317,415,000 francs. The return of Buonaparte from Elba, and his short-lived government of one hundred days, cost France more than 60 millions sterling; and the French nation was doomed in its turn

[12] A pamphlet was published and circulated in Paris, after the rupture of the peace of Amiens, in order to show the people of France that war was no burden to them, but rather a profitable concern. According to it, there was paid annually to France, in tribute, loans, or otherwise, by

Spain,	60,000,000 livres.
Portugal,	30,000,000
Naples,	10,000,000
Pope,	4,000,000
Etruria,	6,000,000
Genoa,	3,000,000
Italian Republic,	32,000,000
Hanover, Westphalia, &c.	32,000,000
Hesse,	6,000,000
Mecklenburg,	1,500,000
Brunswick,	1,500,000
Saxony,	4,000,000
Denmark,	4,000,000
Total,	194,000,000 livres, or

more than £9,000,000 sterling annually.

to experience the effects of its own maxim: "It belongs to war to support war." By the treaty of 1815, France agreed to pay to the Allies a war-contribution of 700 millions of francs, or £30,625,000, and that in five years; and to pay, feed, and clothe 150,000 of their troops till the preceding contribution was paid.

The following is an abstract of the budget in 1828:—

EXPENDITURE.	Francs.
Army and ordnance,	196,000,000
Navy, ...	57,000,000
Civil list in all its departments, ...	32,000,000
Administration of justice,	19,641,934
Department of foreign affairs, ...	9,000,000
Treasury charges, including the interest of money borrowed in anticipation of the current taxes, .	102,477,850
Ecclesiastical affairs and public instruction, .	35,000,000
Annual appropriation to the sinking fund, . .	40,000,000
Home department, comprising a variety of local expenses, the funds for which are issued on an application to the minister of the home-departments from the prefects or mayors, ...	92,721,400
Expenses of collecting the revenue, ...	137,512,551
Arrears of revenue, . . .	201,357,867
	922,711,602

REVENUE.	Francs.
Direct contributions, .	289,456,361
Indirect contributions, .	213,150,000
Enregistrement et domaines. This corresponds to our stamps: being a heavy tax on all sales of lands and houses, also on legacies, . .	190,326,000
Sale of wood from the public forests, . . .	22,690,000
Customs, ...	147,920,000
Tax on salt, ...	2,000,000
Lottery, ...	15,508,000
Post-office, ...	31,060,000
Miscellaneous receipts, &c.	2,300,000
	924,410,361
	922,711,602
	1,698,759

Notwithstanding the above calculated surplus, there was a deficit in the revenue of 1828. The expenditure of 1829 is estimated at 979,936,329 francs. The receipts at 979,352,224 francs.

National Bank.] The bank of France was established in 1801, or, to speak more properly, it was then new-modelled with a capital stock of 30,000,000 francs, or £1,300,000 in specie, made up of 30,000 shares of 1,000 francs each. The amount of its notes in circulation was generally about £4,000,000 sterling. Its dividend has always exceeded five per cent.; but the surplus is reserved as a stock when the dividend falls under five per cent. Its notes are not a legal tender. It discounts the acceptances of government and individuals; and receives deposits of sums not below 50 francs, for which it gives recognizances bearing interest. Its general assembly is composed of 200 holders of five shares or more, who choose 15 directors, and 3 censors, each of whom must be holders of at least 30 shares. Almost all business, however, is transacted by gold and silver; the total of these metals in circulation being calculated at no less a sum than eighty millions sterling. The bank of France has experienced four temporary suspensions: viz. in 1783, 1787, 1798, and 1802. In 1806, a more serious stoppage took place; and another in 1814, when the Allies entered France, just before Buonaparte left Paris to put himself at

the head of his army. The public funds of France consist of bank shares, and the *tiers consolide.* The latter is a 5 per cent. stock.

Military Force.] Although we may now confidently presume that we shall have no great occasion for future alarm from the military preponderance of France, yet it may not be uninteresting to our readers, to give a short historical sketch of the military strength of a power which has so often disturbed the repose of its neighbours. It was not till the reign of Louis XIV. that the military power of France menaced the independence of Europe, and threatened the erection of universal monarchy. The science of war was brought at that period to a degree of perfection hitherto unknown, under the auspices of a Conde and a Turenne; and a complete revolution in the art of fortification was effected by the celebrated Vauban. By this engineer a new method of attack was invented, against which no mode of defence hitherto practised has been able to hold out. The French army, at that period, consisted of 400,000 men, commanded by 20 marshals, 80 lieutenant-generals, and 138 marshals de camp. The infantry amounted to 300,000 men; and were divided into two bodies: viz. French and foreign. The cavalry amounted to 100,000 men, and were divided into three bodies, viz. the gendarmes, the light-horse, and the dragoons. There were 104 regiments of the two former, and 43 of dragoons. But it was reserved for the era of the Revolution fully to display the tremendous military energies of France.

The Mountain party originated the military conscription. By the activity, knowledge, and zeal of Carnot, a member of the revolutionary tribunal, and minister at war, no less than 14 armies were organized in 1794, amounting to 1,400,000 men! A decree had been previously passed, by which all unmarried citizens, from 18 to 25 years of age, were ordered to join the armies, without any distinction of rank, fortune, or business; while the married, the aged, and even the women and children, were to be employed in various ways in the service of their country, by forging arms, making tents and clothes, attending the hospitals, and preaching hatred against the enemies of the republic. This law was still farther extended, and made to include all from 16 to 45 years of age. These were divided into three classes: the first comprehending those from 16 to 25 years of age; the second those from 25 to 35 years of age; and the third, those from 35 to 45 years of age. The numbers of the first class, in 1793, were 1,700,000 men; the total number liable to serve under 45 years of age, 6,000,000. The degree of conscription was declared a permanent law of the republic, and afterwards of the empire; and this engine, whether wielded by a Carnot, or a Buonaparte, like the projected lever of Archimedes, for a time moved and overturned the balance of the political world. Every fresh conquest, and every new annexation of territory, gave an additional maximum of force to this tremendous machine. The annual conscription, before the annexation of Belgium, Savoy, and other places in Italy, averaged annually, 240,000 men. After the incorporation of these countries, it averaged from the beginning of 1806 to that of 1810, 360,000 men annually. By the official report of January, 1809, the French army consisted of 900,000 infantry, and 100,000 cavalry, excluding auxiliaries; and it was afterwards still more augmented. In the course of four years: viz. from 1792 to 1795, the revolutionary government brought into the field, 1,778,000 men, of whom, fully 800,000 perished in the field. From the beginning of 1812, till the 1st of January 1814, France called out, by extraordinary conscriptions, in her territories alone,

1,280,000 men; and, from other countries under her sway, 700,000 men; making a total of 1,980,000 men. In the beginning of 1812, when Napoleon had attained the pinnacle of his greatness, France, including her incorporated conquests, had a standing army of 1,200,000 men. This formidable host—greater far than ever Rome maintained in the zenith of her power, or the numbers who mustered under the banners of the stern Attila—was commanded by 18 marshals of the empire, 150 generals of division, 300 generals of brigade, and 135 adjutant-commandants. Amongst this vast force were included 8 regiments of foot artillery, 6 regiments of horse-artillery, 22 battalions of the artillery train, 16 companies of artillery labourers, 2 battalions of pontooneers, 19 companies of miners, 5 battalions of sappers, and 1 battalion of *gardes de genie*.

On the 1st of May 1814, the regular land-forces of France amounted to more than 520,000 men of every description; and 122,597 military of all ranks were in the receipt of half-pay, besides the force above-mentioned. By the peace of Paris in 1814, above 30,000 military officers were thrown out of employment; and 400,000 prisoners still remained in Prussia, Russia, Austria, and Great Britain. In April 1815, upon the renewal of the war, the *Moniteur* stated the military regular force to consist of 120 regiments of the line, each consisting of 5 battalions, amounting altogether to 360,000 men. The cavalry consisted of 14 regiments of carabineers or cuirassiers, 20 regiments of dragoons, and 30 regiments of light-horse, each of 1,000 men; or 64,000 men in all. The artillery, sappers, and engineers consisted of 18 regiments, or 30,000 men. Added to these, were the imperial guards, constituting a distinct and independent body of 40,000 men. The cavalry was, very shortly after, augmented to 70,000 men. The whole regular army amounting to 500,000 men; besides 200,000 national guards in the garrisoned towns, and 400,000 men dispersed over the country, made a grand total of 1,100,000 men, besides the marine forces consisting of 60,000 men. But this vast army underwent the fate of its predecessors. The bow of the modern Attila was again broken by the united strength of Wellington and Blucher; and the military despotism of France suffered a second overthrow. Louis XVIII. by a decree, dated the 16th of July 1815, disbanded the whole army, and deprived Davoust of the command, which was conferred upon Macdonald, who organized a new army from the wreck of the old. The present French army is recruited by voluntary enlistments and annual levies, which can be raised to 60,000 men. Every Frenchman from the age of 20 years is liable to eight years military service. The army is commanded by 3 colonel-generals, 12 marshals of France, a great number of lieutenant-generals, and marshals de camps, and 244 major-generals. In 1828 the budget exhibited the state of the French army as follows:—

Staff,	3,963
King's establishment,	1,826
ROYAL GUARD.	
Gendarmerie d'élite,	417
Infantry,	15,378
Cavalry,	6,436
Artillery,	1,521
Invalids,	234
TROOPS OF THE LINE.	
Gendarmerie,	14,570
Infantry,	129,847
Cavalry,	32,186

Artillery,	15,907
Engineers,	4,874
Baggage troops,	725
Invalids,	5,886
Total,	233,770

France is divided into 21 military sections, each governed by a lieutenant-general. The citadels, field, chateaux, and military-posts, amount to 187. Schools of artillery are established at different places, and there are several military academies. We should no longer be disposed to view the increase of the military force of France with jealousy. Whatever power France may be able to wield is henceforth likely to be directed against the hourly increasing power of Russia, which threatens in a little time to reign paramount along the shores of the Mediterranean, while it advances upon the Rhine.

Marine Force.] Independent of an extensive and flourishing commerce, no country can attain to a high degree of naval power. Commerce is the nursery of seamen. In 1690, the French navy amounted to 63 ships of the line, 7 frigates, 36 vessels armed in flute, and 14 cutters, under the command of Tourville; and was very formidable to the naval power of Great Britain, till the decisive victory of La Hogue, achieved by admiral Russel, settled the contest in favour of England. In 1704, the French made another great effort to regain their naval superiority; their fleet, which engaged the combined fleets of England and Holland, amounted to 50 sail of the line, 8 frigates, and 9 armed vessels, but the struggle was unavailing, and they were again compelled to yield the palm of naval superiority to their rivals. In 1791, their naval force consisted of 73 men of war, 67 frigates, 19 cutters, 29 armed brigs, 7 gun-boats, besides several galliots, and hospital-ships; but the war of the Revolution annihilated the navy of France. Napoleon made incessant, though fruitless efforts, to retrieve his naval force, which suffered an irreparable defeat at Trafalgar, in October 1805. According to the exposé for 1814, the most absurd of Buonaparte's schemes were those which related to the establishment of a numerous and formidable navy. "Paris itself," says that report, "saw a dock-yard erected within its walls; and what now remains of all these armaments? The wrecks of some of the vessels and gun-boats; which prove, that for the successive creation and destruction of this monstrous and useless flotilla, upwards of 150,000,000 francs have been sacrificed since 1803. The grand works executed at Cherburgh, and the fine squadron of Toulon, alone present useful results. All the arsenals are completely dilapidated; the immense naval stores collected by Louis XVI. are squandered; and, during the last 15 years, France lost 43 ships of the line, 82 frigates, and 76 corvettes; which could not be replaced at an expense of 200,000,000 francs." According to the budget of 1828, the French navy consists of 36 vessels of the line, 35 frigates, 7 corvettes of war, 23 brigs, 15 goelette brigs, 8 corvettes-avisos, 3 small brigs, 6 gun-brigs, 35 goelettes, 13 cutters, 27 flotillas, 8 steam-boats, 11 corvettes, 32 gabarres, 4 transports, and 2 yachts. The royal-marine corps is composed of one grand-admiral, 8 vice-admirals, 14 rear-admirals, 1,209 officers, 60 officers of engineers, 1,000 officers of administration in the different posts, 9,542 marines, 3,908 persons employed in the central administration, and 14,963 officers and sailors. There is a royal marine college at Angoulême; a marine school at Brest; and several schools of navigation.

CHAP. VI.—CHIEF CITIES.

Having already noticed the topographical divisions of France, and adverted to the principal productions and statistics of the different provinces, we will not repeat what has been said, but complete our topographical notices by a short account of the principal cities in this kingdom.

City of Paris.] A Gothic-Celtic tribe, called *Parisi*, had built Paris on an island of the Seine; they burned it on the approach of the Romans; but the conquerors rebuilt it, and called it *Lutetia*. It continued a place of small importance, however, until the emperor Julian established his winter-quarters here in 360. In the 5th century it was conquered by the Franks, and it became the capital of their kingdom in 508. The capital of France is situated on the Seine, at the distance of 70 miles from the sea, in a country more generally level and less diversified than the vicinity of London. Instead of gardens, parks, and country-houses, the environs of Paris in many places present large unenclosed fields of corn, while the bustle of men, horses, carriages, and waggons, is far inferior to that of the British metropolis. None of the approaches to London, however, can be compared with the entrance to Paris by the great road from the west, passing through St Germains. Surveyed from a central situation, Paris with its suburbs presents a form nearly circular, and is enclosed by a wall 17 miles in circuit; but the extent really built up might be comprised in a circuit of 14 miles, that is, a length of four miles by three, being little more than the half of London and its suburbs. Paris, however, is more closely built and much more closely inhabited than the English metropolis.

In Paris, as in London, the oldest and worst built parts are to the eastward: viz. the insulated spot called the *Cité*, or *Lutetia;* the suburb of St Antoine; and the quarter of the Marais. From the Cité, streets were, in the course of ages, extended northward towards the Temple, and southward towards the Pantheon; but without acquiring either width or elegance, until, in a more advanced era, the labours of the builder were extended westward to the Tuileries on the north, and the suburb of St Germain on the south. The streets of the Cité can be compared only to Warwick Lane, or East Cheap. Of the streets adjoining it, the great defect consists not in their being crooked, but narrow; and in the houses having, as in the old part of Edinburgh, a most inconvenient degree of height. The suburb of St Germain contains a number of streets, straight and well-paved, but not wider than the streets of London adjacent to Soho square; which, like them, were built towards the close of the 17th century. La Rue St Honore, stretching from the central part of Paris to the west, bears, with the exception of width, some resemblance to the Strand and Piccadily. No street in London, however, can stand a comparison with the Boulevards of Paris. They occupy the space appropriated to the defence of the town in former ages, when its circumference did not exceed seven miles. This space, happily unencumbered with buildings, has been converted into a spacious and magnificent street, about two miles in length, running along the north part of the city. In the middle is a wide unpaved road, with a long row of lofty trees on each side; and between each row of trees and the parallel row of houses are spacious gravelled walks for foot passengers. The waving line adds greatly to the beauty of the Boulevards; the eye cannot reach to the end of the prospect, and the uncommon width of 200 to 300 feet is productive of no va-

cuity or dulness, so brisk is the movement of carriages and passengers, so lively the scene presented in the shops, hotels, and coffee-houses on either side. On the south side of the city the Boulevards extend a still greater length, and are planted with trees, but not yet lined with houses. The Rue de la Paix, the Rue de Rivoli, and Rue Castiglione, are very splendid.

In squares, Paris differs greatly from London,—the aspect of the buildings which surround them being lofty and grand, while the extent of the space forming the square is often insignificant. At present, the finest square is the Place Vendome, an octagonal space, surrounded by elegant stone buildings, but much smaller than the principal squares in London, being little more than 500 feet in length, and 400 in breadth. The Place Royale, a square in the east of Paris, built in the reign of Henry IV. is within nearly similar limits; while the Place des Victoires, a central and busy spot, is still more restricted. The Place de Grave, the scene of so many revolutionary executions, is a small square in the centre of Paris, in front of the Hotel de Ville. The Place Dauphine, on the south, and the Place du Chatelet on the north of the river, are, like many other openings, very convenient for carriages or passengers; but have no title to the name of squares. A very different character is due to the Place du Carousal, a spacious oblong between the Tuileries and the Louvre, extending a quarter of a mile in length, and having the long picture-gallery on its south side. This is the place for the occasional exercise of the troops and national guards. The Place de Louis XV. is situated to the west of the garden of the Tuileries, and affords the spectator a fine view of the western entry to Paris; but cannot as yet be termed a square, having a row of buildings on one side only, and its other sides marked merely by an iron railing. The Champ de Mars is still less a square: it is an oblong park on the south-west of Paris, extending from the Military School to the river, and bordered on each side by several rows of trees. The Palais Royal, situated in the centre of Paris, has long ceased to be a royal residence; but it contains within itself a little world, and has long been deemed one of the principal curiosities of the French capital. It is not only a bazar, on a large scale, but a centre of amusement; and the general rendezvous of the foreigners who visit Paris. The nocturnal loungers, and the votaries of dissipation, scattered in London over so wide a space, are in Paris collected in this central spot.

The Seine, flowing from east to west, intersects Paris nearly in the middle; it has not half the breadth of the Thames, and though its banks are termed quays, it is almost entirely destitute of the enlivening aspect of shipping. Still the effect of the river is very pleasant, particularly in the quarter of the Tuileries, where, along the southern bank, from the Pont Neuf to the Palais Bourbon, there extends a noble line of edifices, public and private, which are seen to great advantage, being separated from the water by a broad and spacious pavement. Eight bridges, three of which were built by Napoleon, connect the parts of the city divided by the Seine. The Pont de Jena, and the Pont des Invalides, which Blucher threatened to blow up, are very magnificent. The Pont de Louis XVI. is one of the finest bridges in Europe.

In palaces, and public structures of the first rank, Paris is greatly superior to London. The church of St Geneviève, or the Pantheon, is a magnificent modern building with a noble cupola. Napoleon had destined it as a mausoleum for the ashes of celebrated men, like our own Westminster Abbey; but this destination is no longer attended to. The church

of Notre Dame is a noble edifice 390 feet in length. Those of St Roch and St Eustache are also very fine buildings. The Tuileries, the present royal residence, was begun in the 16th century, and finished after various interruptions in the 17th. It extends from north to south, above 1000 feet, exhibiting several orders of architecture, and is higher at the pavilions than in the central parts; but this inequality produces no bad effect. The whole has a noble and venerable appearance. A little to the east of the Tuileries, on the same side of the Seine, stands the Louvre, of which the chief part is of the refined age of Louis XIV. The front towards the water is elegant; but the eastern front, called from the pillars the colonnade of the Louvre, is a model of symmetry, and would excite general admiration were the space in front more extensive and freed from the degrading association of stalls and salesmen. The Louvre is used as a depot for objects of taste and art. It contains above 1000 paintings, 500 statues and busts, and 20,000 drawings. The Palace of the Luxemburg, situated in the south of Paris, is distinguished by the symmetry of its proportions. It is more regular than the Tuileries, but less animated; more chaste and elegant, but less striking. One of its halls forms the chamber of Peers; another contains a national gallery of paintings; but the most striking object in its interior is the grand staircase, adorned with a number of statues of French generals and legislators. The adjoining gardens are spacious and beautiful. But it would greatly exceed our limits even to name all the public buildings worthy of notice. Of public monuments, the principal is a great brazen pillar, in the Place Vendome, commemorative of the victories of Buonaparte in Germany in 1805; the materials for which were obtained by melting the cannon taken from the Austrians. Its diameter is 12 feet; its height 133; its form an imitation of that of Trajan; and the expense of its erection £60,000. The Hospitals are numerous and well-managed. The Maison des Invalides, possesses accommodation for 6,000 persons.

The literary institutions, and scientific collections in Paris are numerous, and formed upon the most liberal principles. Its libraries, some of them the largest in Europe, are accessible at all times equally to the rich and to the poor. The Royal Library has above 360,000 printed books, besides as many printed tracts collected into volumes, and 72,000 manuscripts. The library of Monsieur, 150,000 printed volumes, and 5,000 manuscripts. The library of St Genevieve 110,000 printed volumes, and 2,000 manuscripts. The Magazine Library, 92,000 printed volumes, and 3000 manuscripts. The library of the city of Paris, 20,000 volumes. All these are daily open to the public. Besides these there are in Paris and the departments a number of libraries to which access may be obtained; the principal of which are—the private libraries of the king in the Tuileries, Fountainbleau, St Cloud, Trinon, and Rambouillet; the library of the legislative body; of the council of State; of the Institute; of the Invalids; of the Court of Cassation, formerly the library of the Advocates; and of the Polytechnic School. Among the printing offices, the Imprimerie Royale claims the first place, on account of its extent and admirable arrangement. It prints the Memoirs of the Institute, and all other works which the king causes to be published, as a recompence or encouragement, gratis. The gallery of the Louvre; the museum of natural history in the Jardin des Plantes; and the Jardin des Plantes itself, nearly half a mile in length, are not to be equalled in any city of Europe. A new exchange has been built at Paris. It is incon-

testably the finest monument of this kind in the world. It is the full size of the Parthenon at Athens. Like that famous temple, the exchange of Paris has the form of an oblong quadrangle, surrounded with pillars almost of the same dimensions, but more numerous; for the temple of Minerva had only in the peristyle eight columns, while that of Plutus has fourteen. After having passed the steps which ascend to the peristyle and traversed a vast porch, we enter the great hall, which is to serve for the rendezvous for the merchants. This hall is immense: it goes to the roof of the building, and a cover of glass crowns it. A double portico on the ground floor, and the first story, goes quite round. The ornaments are in the best taste, and the *tout ensemble* is at once elegant and grand.

Water is abundant, but is not conveyed in pipes from house to house; the common fuel is wood, and the expense of living at least 30 per cent. cheaper than in London. Paris annually exports objects of industry to the value of 47,000,000 francs, of which 14,000,000 are in shawls, and 6,000,000 in jewellery. There are in this city 520 watchmakers, who employ about 2056 workmen, and produce annually 80,000 gold watches, 15,000 silver watches, and 15,000 clocks, the whole worth about 19,765,000 francs. The population on the 1st of January 1827, was 890,431. There are 10,053 vehicles for the service of the interior of Paris, and 733 for the exterior; 500 water carriages drawn by horses and 1,300 drawn by men; 178 royal diligences, 306 ordinary diligences; 249 small stages; 500 cabriolets for the exterior. Deducting about one-third in supposing that the stages are not filled, we find that 29,121 persons remove from Paris every week, equal to one person out of 27 of the whole population; every year the departures amount to 1,514,292; 8,396 places taken in the mail coaches; 50,000 travel annually by boats that ply on the Seine, and probably six millions by the short stages. and yet in this extraordinary movement of the population, only 123,807 passports were delivered. Among the strangers who visit the capital, the English are the most numerous; from 1815 till 1821, 123,734 have resided there; the number increasing proportionally every year. In 1815 there were 13,822; in 1821 there were 20,184. A variety of curious calculations has lately been made in France, with respect to the average duration of human life, &c. in Paris, during the 18th century. It appears, that the average of marriage was, for men, about 29¾ years—for women, about 24¾ years; and that the average age of parents at the birth of a son, was, for women, about 28¼ years—for men, about 33¼ years. It follows, that there were nearly three generations in Paris during the last century. It is a remarkable fact, that this estimate coincides with that of the Greeks in their chronological tables. In 1825 the births in Paris amounted to 29,253—of which 14,989 were boys, and 14,264 girls. Of the above 5,361 were born in the hospitals—19,214 only were the issue of marriage, and 10,039, more than a third of the whole, the issue of illicit connexions!! M. Falret, a doctor of medicine, has prepared from the official records of the police, a curious memoir on the suicides in Paris, from 1794 to 1823. In these 30 years the whole number of attempted suicides, discovered by the police, was 6,782, of which 4,720 were effected. This amounts to 223 per annum on an average, but the number has been increasing; in the ten years ending 1803, it was 107 per annum; and in the ten years ending 1823, it was 334. In the ten years ending 1823, the whole number was 3340: and of these it is surprising to find that 181 were under fifteen years of age; and 479 between fifteen and twenty!

But the age at which suicide is most common is between 35 and 45, the number for that period being 2370, or two-thirds of the whole.

The Comte de Chabrol, prefect of the department of the Seine, in 1820 published a work, from official documents, containing some interesting particulars on the state of Paris. The following extracts will afford a curious comparison with the state of London:—An eighth part of the paving of Paris is renewed annually, during seven months of the best season. The streets, bridges, and public squares are lighted by 4,553 lanterns, which consume annually 275,667 kilogrammes of oil, or 608,397 lbs. avoirdupois. The ordinary watering and cleaning of the streets is done by the inhabitants. In ordinary years there are consumed in Paris 718,000 hectolitres (of 100 bottles each,) of wine, including about 450,000 bottles, or 13,968,842 wine-gallons, 659,154 wine-gallons of cyder, 2,034,263 wine-gallons of beer, 359,298 wine-gallons of vinegar, 71,750 bullocks, 8,500 cows, 76,500 calves, 339,650 sheep, 70,500 hogs, 931,000 pigeons, 174,000 ducks, 1,289,000 chickens, 251,000 capons or poulets, 549,000 turkeys, 328,000 geese, 131,000 partridges, 177,000 rabbits, 29,000 hares, butter and eggs cost annually 10.348,800 francs, oysters cost 599,400 francs, sea-fish 3,417,600 francs, fresh-water fish 333,400 francs. As Paris has increased in population above a seventh-part since 1820, when the above calculation was made, we may reasonably infer that the consumption has increased in nearly the same proportion; the average consumpt of brandy for the years 1824–1825, was about 43½ hectolitres. The receipts of the twelve theatres, including the olympic circus, may be valued, one year with another, at 5,500,000 francs, or £229,166 13*s.* 4*d.*; of which they give 500,000 francs for the use of the poor. 10.000 persons daily frequent the spectacles, of whom 7,000 pay, and 3,000 have free admissions. The receipt of the minor spectacles, balls, gardens, concerts, and coffeehouses may be estimated at 1,000,000, of which 100,000 francs go to the poor. So that public amusements produce above 6,000,000 francs or £250.000, which is above £666 per day, not including the expense of refreshments, and of gaming, which pays separately. As compared with London one circumstance would lead us to suppose the population of Paris miserably poor. In Paris burials are alloted to privileged undertakers, who pay a tax for the privilege—and the rites of inhumation being considered expensive, (although the charge for the lowest class is only about 41 francs or £1 13*s.* every thing included,) a vast proportion of those who die are buried by certificates of indigence! In an average statement of the burials from 1821 to 1823 it appears that of persons who died in their own houses scarcely one-fourth were buried at the expense of their families. We suspect, however, that this revolting circumstance is owing in a great measure to something worse than absolute poverty, else why do the lower orders in Paris spend so much in public amusements? The number of houses in Paris being supposed 26,801, and the number of families 224,922—we have

Fires.		Houses.	
540	. .	26,801	= 2.01 : 100, or 1 fire in 50 houses,
and Fires.		families	
540	. .	224,922	= 0.24 : 100, or 1 fire in 416 families.

The average loss in Paris by fire is computed at one part in twenty-three thousand of the value, from which it would appear that the assistance given by the corps of sappeurs pampins, in extinguishing fires, must be applied with great celerity and judgment, as a very small destruction of property

(even by wetting or breaking) at each of the great number of them which occur, would amount to a larger proportion of loss than above estimated.

Lyons.] The city of Lyons, situated at the foot of a high and steep hill, on a tongue of land formed by the junction of the Rhone and Saone, may be considered as next in importance to the capital. The ancient name of the place *Lugdunum*, is familiar in Roman history. The city was founded by Lucius Plancus, the friend of Cicero and Horace. Its form is oblong; its length 2½ miles; and its breadth one, but including the scattered streets to the west, nearly two miles. It has six bridges over the Saone,—three of them stone, the others wood; and two over the Rhone, one of wood, the other of stone. The latter affords a fine view of the quays, which are here bordered with rows of trees, and are little inferior in beauty to those of Paris. It has four public squares; one of them, the Place de Bellecour, planted with trees and surrounded with elegant buildings, is entitled to rank with the finest in Europe. Two sides of this square were destroyed during the Revolution; but they have been rebuilt with additional splendour. The equestrian statue of Louis XIV. recently erected in this place is a noble monument. Of its public buildings the most noted are the hotel de Ville in the Place des Terreaux, which the Lyonese consider the finest town-hall in Europe after that of Amsterdam, and the large hospital called Hópital Dieu which is served entirely by sœurs and frères of the sisterhoods and fraternities which are devoted to the charitable work of attending the sick, and is remarkable for its extent, being capable of containing 3,000 patients. The cathedral is a fine old Gothic structure. Lyons has a variety of antiquities. Its literary institutions are an academy of sciences, founded in 1700; and an academy of fine arts, in 1724. Its educational establishments are in considerable repute; and its public library attached to the royal college, is reckoned the largest provincial one in France. It contains upwards of 120,000 volumes. Lyons is the finest manufacturing town in France: and its neighbourhood is not only more rich but more populous than that of Paris. Viewed from an eminence, it presents to the eye a succession of villages, chateaux, and country-houses, delightfully situated in the middle of lawns, pleasure-grounds, and gardens; the whole laid out in better taste than is common on the continent. The population, before the Revolution, was 150,000; that event reduced it to 75,000; in 1820, it was 120,000: and in 1827, 145,675.

Bordeaux.] This city situated on the left bank of the Garonne, 16 leagues from its mouth, is large and opulent. The population of the town was by the last returns 93,549. It is not remarkably handsome, the streets being narrow, crooked, and badly paved; but it has a number of elegant edifices. The most remarkable public buildings are the exchange; the ancient hotel des Fermes; the palace founded by Napoleon in 1810; an elegant theatre; the old town-house; and the palace, first occupied by the dukes of Guyenne, and afterwards by the parliament. Bordeaux has also a public library of 105,000 volumes. Next to that of Marseilles, the maritime commerce of this city is the most extended of any in France, and owes its origin to the spacious harbour formed by the Garonne. The tide rises to 12 feet, so that vessels can come up close to the town, and the harbour is very spacious. A direct communication betwixt Dublin and Bordeaux has been opened by means of steam-boats. The vault under the tower of St Michel, in the cathedral at Bordeaux, which was built by the English, possesses the singular pro-

perty of preserving the human corpses almost entire. Nearly sixty bodies are placed standing or sitting against the wall—a horrible and ghastly sight; some of them are three hundred years old; the skin has the appearance of leather; and many have their garments still remaining.

Marseilles.] Situated on the Mediterranean, and the capital of the department of the mouths of the Rhone, Marseilles is a large and commercial city. It is completely enclosed by a succession of rocky hills, extending in the form of a half-moon until each extremity reaches the sea. The form of the city is nearly square; and the port, which is entered by a narrow passage from the sea, is almost in the centre of the town. What is called the Old Town, rises to the north like an amphitheatre, and is composed of narrow streets, lined with crowded and ill-built houses. The New Town is equal in beauty to any town of France. Its streets are broad and straight; its squares spacious and handsome; and its buildings remarkable for their elegance. It is separated from the Old Town by a street—thought by some travellers superior in beauty to the famous Toledo at Naples—certainly one of the finest in Europe. It extends across the city in a straight line, and is terminated by the two principal gates,—on the north by that called the Porte D'Aix, and on the south by the Porte D'Rome. Its length is a mile; and towards the centre of the town it expands into a beautiful promenade, planted with trees, and adorned with fountains. From this, another street planted with trees, leads to the harbour, where the traveller is struck with the immense multitude of persons of various languages and dresses which continually crowd the quays. The environs of Marseilles are not fertile, but are well-cultivated; and the number of small country-houses surrounding it, or *bastides*, as they are called, is said to amount to 5,000. Its population is 116,000.

Toulon.] Toulon, a celebrated city and sea-port of France, is a very ancient place, having been founded, according to the common opinion, by a Roman general. The inhabitants are computed at 21,000. It is divided into the Old Quarter and the New Quarter; and the harbour is distinguished likewise by the names of the Old Port, or the Merchant Port, and the New Port. Toulon is the only mart in the Mediterranean for the re-exportation of the products of the East Indies. Both the Old and New Port have an outlet into the spacious outer road or harbour, which is surrounded by hills, and of very great extent. Louis XIV. raised Toulon from a pitiful village to the rank of a sea-port of great importance. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and, by means of a canal, ships pass from the one to the other,—both of them having an outlet into the spacious outer-harbour. Its arsenal and its general magazine contain an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order. Toulon is situated on a bay of the Mediterranean, 16 leagues S.E. of Marseilles, and 217 S.E. of Paris.

Rouen.] This city is situated on the northern bank of the Seine, at a considerable distance from the sea. It is described as far from being elegant. The houses are in many places of wood; and the streets are narrow and consequently dirty. The city is connected with St Lever, one of its suburbs, by a bridge of boats, 270 paces in length, and which is contrived so as to open to permit vessels to pass. Rouen was reckoned a place of much wealth, and possessed a considerable trade previous to the Revolution. The population is estimated at 90,000.

Nantes.] Nantes, situated upon the Loire, was formerly one of the most active of the French commercial cities. Part of it is very elegantly

built. Young speaks of the theatre as being four times larger than that of Drury Lane, and as likewise exceeding it in magnificence. The bridges over the Loire are very extensive. Notwithstanding the former great trade of this place, the river does not admit large vessels to approach nearer than within twelve miles. They are loaded and unloaded by smaller vessels. Nantes is celebrated as being the city in which Henry IV. promulgated that edict, of which the revocation so justly rendered odious the memory of Louis XIV. The number of inhabitants is 72,000.

Toulouse.] In respect of antiquity and consequent dignity, Toulouse, among the French cities, ranks next to Paris. It is situated on the Garonne, by which it has an intercourse with the Atlantic. On the other side it communicates with the Mediterranean by the celebrated canal of Languedoc; but it has never made itself remarkable for its commercial undertakings. The walls and a great part of the houses are of stone. The principal church is a beautiful edifice. The town-house is magnificent. Its public library contains 50,000 volumes. The number of inhabitants is 70,000.

Lisle.] Lisle, on the river Deule, in the department of Nord, is surrounded by strong fortifications, and has many handsome edifices. Among the public buildings, are the exchange, a magazine, and several hospitals. The number of inhabitants is 70,000.

Orléans.] This city, seated upon the northern banks of the Loire, is not remarkable for elegance, if we except the noble bridge on the Loire, and the street which leads to it. The cathedral is a Gothic structure of much beauty. The population is 40,340.

Strasburg.] Strasburg, formerly an imperial city, was taken by Louis XIV. in 1681, and confirmed in the possession of the French by the treaty of Ryswick, in 1697. The fortifications constructed by Louis have since been greatly augmented, so that Strasburg is one of the strongest places in Europe. This city is situated on the river Ill, somewhat less than a mile from the Rhine. It is built of stone, and has no fewer than six bridges. The steeple of the cathedral rises to the great elevation of 574 feet. The population is 49,708.

Brest.] Brest, which is esteemed the best harbour in France, is more remarkable for being the chief resort of the French fleet than for any other circumstance. It is situated in the department of Finisterre. The situation of the town is on a declivity; and the greater part of the streets are narrow and crooked, though many of the buildings are not destitute of elegance. The quay is about a mile in length; and the harbour is defended by a castle upon a rock at the sea side.

Nanci.] This city, situated in the department of Meurthe, displays much elegance. It consists of an old and new town, separated from each other by a canal. The former is irregularly built: the latter is not only regular but in some places magnificent. It contains several fine churches, of which the cathedral is the most remarkable. The palace, formerly belonging to the dukes of Lorraine, is situated in the old town. The population is 29,120.

Versailles.] Versailles, which from being a village in the reign of Louis XIII. has increased to be a city containing 30,000 inhabitants, is situated at the distance of 10 miles from Paris; and has owed its very rapid increase to the circumstance of its having been, since the time of Louis XIV. the ordinary residence of the kings of France. The gardens and parks connected with the palace are not less than five miles in circum-

ference. The palace itself, however, is deficient in unity, and is rather a collection of fine buildings than one grand edifice, a circumstance which greatly diminishes the effect which it might otherwise produce. "The palace of Versailles," says Young, "one of the objects of which report had given me the greatest expectation, is not in the least striking: the impression it makes is nothing. What can compensate the want of unity? From whatever point viewed, it appears an assemblage of buildings, a splendid quarter of a town, but not a fine edifice, an objection from which the garden front is not free, though by far the most beautiful. The great gallery is the finest room I have seen; the other apartments are nothing; but the pictures and statues are well known to be a capital collection." Versailles has a public library of 40,000 volumes.

CHAP. VII.—FRENCH ISLANDS AND COLONIES.

Hieres.] THE islands of Hieres upon the coast of Provence, and to the east of Toulon, are four in number. The names are Titan, Perquerollos, Porterous, and Bagueau. The harbour, or road, formed between these islands and the continent, is reckoned extremely safe, and is defended by three forts.

Oleron.] The first island which occurs upon the western coast of France is Oleron, upon the coast of the Lower Charente. Its length, according to some, is 12 miles, and breadth 5; according to others, its length is 14 miles, and breadth only two. The soil is fertile, producing corn and wine in considerable quantities. The number of inhabitants is upwards of 10,000. On the east it has a castle; and on one of its capes is placed a light-house.

Aix.] The little isle of Aix, the *Promontorium Santonum* of the ancients, in 46° 15″ north latitude is of great importance to the port of Rochefort which it commands, and to which it furnishes an excellent road. It belongs to the department of Charente-Inférieure. Its length from north to south is 2300 metres, and its greatest breadth from east to west 1800 metres. It is separated from Rochelle and Breton by the Basque roads, and is inhabited by about 250 people. In the 9th century this island—which had been a flourishing settlement—was abandoned in consequence of the frequent descent of the Norman pirates. This little isle was frequently contested during the religious wars. In 1383 the English held it. In 1780 its fortifications were repaired. The temperature of Aix is always above that of the adjacent continent. Thus we find the olive coming to perfect maturity here, although its fruit is frequently destroyed by the cold at Rochefort. In 1819 the vineyards of this island produced upwards of 500 barrels of wine.

Ré.] This island is situated northwards from Oleron. It contains a population of 20,000 inhabitants, of whom not less than 4000 are mariners. The west side of this island is rocky and inaccessible; but the opposite coast affords good anchorage. The principal town is Saint-Martin; and next to it La Flotte. The principal productions are wine, brandy, vinegar, and salt. In 1819 it produced 60,000 tons of wine, of which only 10,000 were red. The white wines have an earthy flavour; but improve greatly upon sea. They are chiefly exported to the United States, Norway, Prussia, Holland, Brittany, Normandy, and Picardy. The spirits are said to be superior to those of Montpellier. Ré exports about 40,000

quintals of salt annually for the use of the fish-curers at Ostend, Bremen, and Bergen.

Belleisle.] Proceeding to the north-west, and passing Yeu—an island too small to be particularly noticed,—and Noirmoutier—an island somewhat larger—Belléisle is discovered at the distance of 15 miles from the coast of the modern department of Morbihan. The shores are rocky, which renders the approach to it dangerous. Palais, the principal town, is fortified and has a citadel. Belléisle was taken by the British in 1761; but it was restored to the French in 1763.

Ushant.] Ushant, known likewise by the name of *Ouessant*, is remarkable as being the most western European island in the possession of the French. It is situated to the west of Conquet, in the department of Finisterre. It is of small size, being only 8 miles in circumference; and its distance from the continent is 12 miles. It has a few villages, and contains about 600 inhabitants.

CORSICA.] This island, called by the ancient Greeks *Kyrnos* and *Kyrnou*, lies over against the gulf of Genoa: the northern point being 100 British miles south of that city. It is situated between 41° and 43° of N. latitude; and 8° and 10° E. longitude; having the Ligurian Sea and the Gulf of Genoa on the N.; the Tuscan Sea on the E.; the Straits of Bonifacio, 10 miles in breadth, separating it from Sardinia on the S.; and the Mediterranean on the W. The greatest length from Cape Corso, its most northern point, to the Straits of Bonifacio, its most southern limits, is 116 British miles. The breadth is in some places 54, in others 45 British miles, and in some much less. The coasts being indented by several gulfs and creeks, it is difficult to ascertain precisely its superficial contents. However, the square measurement may be estimated at 440 square leagues. The island is traversed by a chain of mountains nearly in the form of a cross, beginning at Bastia and extending thence to its most southern point, and dividing it into two parts, the east and the west. Fertile vales extend on all sides around the mountains in the interior, reaching even to the sea-coast, and agreeably diversified by rising grounds. The loftier of the mountains are, for the most part of the year, covered with snow. The most elevated of the Corsican mountains are Monte Rotondo, Monte d'Oro, and Monte Cinto. Monte Rotondo, formerly called by the Romans *Mons Aureus*, or 'the golden mountain,' is 1449 toises, or about 9246 English feet above the level of the sea. The summit commands a most extensive prospect of the whole island, together with Sardinia. It is of very difficult access, the upper part of it being almost a perpendicular rock. The height of Monte d'Oro is 1361 toises, or 8720 English feet above the level of the sea. On the summit of Monte Rotondo are two small lakes, the Ino and the Creno. The diameter of lake Ino is 160 toises; but the depth is unknown. The mountains decline gradually from the central range to the sea: the eastern shore of the island as far as Bastia excepted. The valleys are narrow, and increase in depth and breadth as they descend. The sides of the mountains are covered with very beautiful forests of oak and fir. Beautiful marble exists in the neighbourhood of Corte. The mountains yield lead, copper, iron, silver, antimony, alum, porphyry, and jasper. Some of the silver mines are very rich; and the iron is said to be of a superior quality.

Climate and Productions.] It is not easy to reconcile the different statements respecting the climate and soil of Corsica; for while some maintain that the climate is mild, clear, and salubrious, others, as Seneca

who was banished hither, and Volney who resided three months in it, represent it in very different colours. La Croix, a modern French geographer, affirms the air of Corsica to be thick and unwholesome; the territory full of barren mountains, of little fertility, and ill-cultivated. These different statements may be partly true, and partly false. The truth seems to be, that the air is generally clear and salubrious, except in the neighbourhood of stagnant waters and marshes, which are numerous here; and indeed the inhabitants live to a great age. The soil is fertile and productive when properly cultivated; but agriculture is deplorably neglected. The land is mostly public property, and private possessors are few. In 1766, when Corsica came under the dominion of France, no less than 1,440 square miles of its surface were occupied by forests. It produces a great variety of excellent wines, and abounds in olive-trees. The cattle are numerous, but small in size; which is even the case with the natives, few of whom exceed 5 feet in height. The sheep are, in general, black or tawny,—a white sheep being as rare in Corsica as a black one is with us. Their wool is coarse and rough in the pile. Bees are numerous; honey is abundant but somewhat bitter. Manufactures are still in a very imperfect state; and the commerce of the island consists chiefly in the exportation of coral, which abounds on the coasts.

Towns and Population.] The principal ports are Centure, to the N.; St Fiorenzo, Calvi, Isola, Rosa, and Ajaccio, to the W.; and Bastia, Maccinajo, and Porto Vecchio, to the E. The population is not numerous. The intestine wars which have prevailed in it for ages, have greatly contributed to its depopulation. In Pliny's time, there were no less than 33 large towns in this island; but their number is now reduced to 9. By an enumeration which took place in 1740, Corsica was found to contain 133 parishes, 427 villages, 26,854 hearths, and 120,380 inhabitants. Its population in 1766 had risen to 130,000. In the statement made out for the National Assembly of France, the population was increased to 147,000. In 1802 it amounted to 166,813; in 1812 to 174,702; in 1821 to 180,348 individuals,—of whom Bastia contained 9,316 souls; Ajaccio 7,401; Corte 2,735; Porto-Vecchio 1,298; Calvi 1,175; Isola Rosa 748; San Fiorenzo 410; and the 345 rural communes 152,586;—and in 1827 to 185,079.[13] Corsica is divided into two departments: viz. the *Golo*, so

[13] According to M. Pietri of Sartene the circumference of Corsica is about 593 English miles, (including the windings of the bays and creeks,) and its area 2,163,110 English acres; of which 648,590 are cultivated, 601,644 more capable of cultivation, and 912,876 neither cultivated, nor capable of being so. "The direct contributions of all kinds levied in Corsica amount to 400,000 francs, stamps (*enregistrement*) produce 30,000 francs, and the custom-house yields 70,000 francs, making in all a revenue of 500,000 francs; so that dividing the amount of direct taxation, 400,000 francs, by the number of the population 180,348, every Corsican pays on the average 2 francs 22 centimes for the advantages of a government. These contributions are far from commensurate with the expenses which Corsica entails on the French treasury. France pays annually about 3,000,000 francs to maintain the island, of which the pay of the military absorbs 1,700,000 francs. If, however, we assume with the Baron de Beaumont, that the French would not diminish their military establishment, supposing Corsica to be abandoned; then the island costs the government only 1,300,000 francs per annum, and that sum may be further diminished, by considering the advantages derived by the French navy from the timber of the forests of Vizzavona and Ajtona. Money as a medium of traffic is seldom employed in the interior, except in the principal towns. The simple exchange of one article for another, constitutes, for the most part, the internal commerce of the natives. The rent of land is generally paid by a certain quantity of the produce. I learnt at Corte that an acre (*arpent*) of good land would yield the annual rent of 80 measures of corn of 20lbs. weight. Such, then, is the primitive state of the island in a commercial and agricultural point of view. That it is a country possessing great capabilities of being productive, the wild vegetation growing so luxuri-

called from a river of that name, of which the capital is Bastia; and Liamone, of which the capital is Ajaccio; and the two departments are subdivided into 6 districts, 60 cantons, and 391 communes. The Corsicans are well-made, but thin and swarthy. Strabo—who describes them when degraded by servitude—calls them stupid, brutal, and ferocious; while Diodorus Siculus and Pliny give them a character precisely the reverse. In modern times, they have been painted by the Genoese, their old masters, in the blackest colours; and have been as much extolled by the great Frederic and Rousseau. It is certain that, though they are brave, intrepid, active, sagacious, and hospitable, yet the long-continued tyranny of their Genoese masters,—the intestine feuds of the petty insular chiefs with one another,—and the wars in which they have been so constantly engaged,—have imparted a certain degree of ferocity to their character. The spirit of revenge is said to be an essential feature of the Corsican character; and to such an extent is this passion carried, that those who conceive that their honour has been injured will suffer their beards to grow till they receive satisfaction for the affront. Volney informs us that, during the three months he resided there, no less than 111 assassinations took place, arising from private revenge. Almost every inhabitant of Corsica pretends that the late emperor of France was related to him. There is scarcely a little shopkeeper, or poor shepherd who does not call the emperor his cousin, and who, while eating his chesnut-bread, does not with great complacency describe all that he might have been had he taken the trouble to go to the French court and present his sun-burnt features to his illustrious cousin! Roman Catholicism is the religion of the island. The Corsican bishops are five in number, and suffragans of the archbishop of Pisa.

Historical Sketch.] When, by whom, and from what quarter, Corsica was originally peopled, is now unknown. It was successively conquered by the Carthaginians, Romans, Vandals, Goths, Lombards, and Saracens. It afterwards fell into the hands of the Pisans and the Genoese. After a long contest between those rival republics, the Genoese at length expelled the Pisans from their share of the island, and obtained the full sovereignty in 1144. The Corsicans at different times made vain and fruitless efforts to shake off the Genoese yoke. At one time, no less than 18 parishes were destroyed, 100 villages burned, and the chief men of the island

antly in its valleys, abundantly indicates; but, unhappily, no excitement has hitherto been given to Corsican industry. The Corsican language is a corrupt Italian, and scarcely any two writers agree in their description of it. Viale, who is, perhaps, the best authority, states it to be a mixture of Tuscan, Sicilian, Sardinian, Genoese, and French. The Italian scholar, by substituting the letter *o* for *u*, in Corsican words, will find the greater part of them to be good Italian. The people give a rapid and abrupt utterance to their words; whilst the voice, shrill at the commencement of a sentence, gradually sinks as they finish their periods. This, coupled with their animated countenances and great gesticulation, makes one at first think that the parties talking are quarrelling. The matter of their ordinary language is very figurative. A taste for poetry is common throughout the island. Almost every peasant can repeat verses; some of these are from Italian authors; others are the mountain-songs, composed by the shepherds of the interior, which pass by oral tradition from father to son. The mountain-songs of the interior are very interesting. Framed amidst scenes singularly romantic, many of them partake of the character of the country; and as they are produced by persons unacquainted with the refined rules of poetry, they possess a spirit that seldom flows from a pen checked by the fear of critical censure. Some of these canzone are written to satirize the French, and to extol the natives. The heroes who form the subject of others are generally banditti, or fugitive conscripts who have escaped from the vigilance of the French civil authorities, and their hardy exploits and adventures are thus perpetuated. The Corsicans are great Improvisatori; and the verses recited by women at the funerals of their husbands, although produced without premeditation, are frequently so expressive of sorrow as to affect the by-standers in a great degree."

treacherously put to death by their republican masters, whose policy it was to govern entirely through fear. The Corsicans offered their island to Louis XIV. at the time his fleet was bombarding Genoa, but their offer was declined. Wearied out, however, with oppression, they determined at every hazard to shake off the yoke. The Genoese, unable to reduce the rebels, sold the island to Louis XV.; and after a severe and arduous contest with the French, Paoli, with some of his adherents, was obliged to abandon his native island, the conquest of which was completed in 1769. Upon the French Revolution the Corsicans were admitted to the right of citizenship, and sent deputies to the National Assembly. In 1793, Paole, thinking the opportunity favourable for rescuing his country from the French yoke, invited Lord Hood, then at Toulon, and who had failed in a recent attempt against Corsica, to invade it anew; and an expedition sailed from the bay of Hieres on the 24th of January 1795, for the express purpose of freeing this island from French domination. The towns of Morsella Fornelli and San Fiorenzo were taken by general Dundas; and Bastia and Calvi having yielded to the British, the union of Corsica with Great Britain was unanimously voted in a general consulta held at Corte. The proposition was accepted, and Lord Minto declared viceroy. Corsica did not, however, long continue an appendage of the British crown. The Corsicans, elated at the career of their countryman, Buonaparte, determined to renew their connexion with France; and the British, having evacuated the island, Corsica has ever since continued a province of France.

COLONIES.] The colonies belonging to France are the following:—

AMERICA.

		Population in 1827
MARTINIQUE,		97,293
GUADALOUPE,	92,196	
Dependencies.		
Marie-Galante,	11,778	110,082
Les Saintes,	1,119	
La Désirade,	1,266	
St Martin,	3 723	
GUIANA,		17,331
St PIERRE and MIQUELON,		600

AFRICA.

BONA and LA CALLE, coral-fishing stations,	
SENEGAL,	
Arrondissement of St Louis.	
Isle of St Louis; the neighbouring isles of Babaghé, Safal, and Ghiber; the different establishments upon the river; the gum-district; and a part of the coast from Cape Blanc to the Bay of Jof,	18,000
Arrondissement of Gorée.	
Isle of Gorée; and the coast from the Bay of Jof to Albreda in Gambia,	
ISLE of BOURBON,	80,454
ISLE of St MARIE, near the eastern coast of Madagascar,	600

ASIA.—HINDOSTAN.

PONDICHERRY and KARIKAL, on the Coromandel coast,	
YANAON, and its dependencies, in the northern Circars,	
CHANDERNAGORE, in Bengal,	
MAHE, on the Malabar coast,	179,000
A factory at Surat, in the Gulf of Cambaye,	
In ARABIA. The factories at Muscat and Mokka,	

RECAPITULATION.

America,	225,306
Africa,	99,054
Asia,	179,000
Total,	503,360

Since 1826 the colonies of Martinique, Guadaloupe, and Bourbon, have paid the expenses of their own administration; the other colonial establishments are chiefly paid from the annual revenue of 965,000 francs, which the English East India company pays to France, in consideration of certain privileges renounced by the latter in favour of the former.

Authorities.] Voyage dans les Départements de la France, par une Société d'Artistes, 10 tom. 8vo. Paris. 1792.—Travels in France by Arthur Young, 2 vols. 4to. London.—Tremblai tableau géogr. polit. et Statist. des 120 Dèp. de la France. Paris. 1804. folio.—Ehrmann's Hist. Stat. Top. Lexikon von Frankreich. Ulm. 1795–1807. 4 Bd. 8vo.—Statistique de la France par Peuchet, 1807.—Description top. et stat. de la France par Peuchet et Chanlaire. Paris. 1815.—Barne's Tour.—A Picturesque Tour through France, &c. in 1816, 8vo.—Birdbeck's Tour in France, 1815.—Itinéraire du royaume de France. Paris. 1816.—Memorandums of a residence in France in 1815–16. London. 8vo.—L'Industrie Française par Chaptal. 2 tom. 8vo. 1819.—Jacobs' View of the Agriculture, &c. of Germany and France. 4to. London.—Voyage dans la France par le Compte Orloff. 2 tom. 1825.—Reichard's Itinerary, 18mo.—The Traveller's Guide to France, 18mo.—Four Years' Residence in France. 8vo. London.—Forces Productives et Commerciales de la France par M. le Baron Dupin. 2 tom. 4to. 1827.—Dictionnaire Géographique Universel. Paris. 1828. Le Moniteur.—Almanac National et Royal Grande carte top. de la France par Cassini etc. Paris. 1803. feuiller.—Carte routiere de la France, en 6 feuiller. 1816.—Weiland's Charte von Frankreich. Weimar. 1819.

SPAIN.

Boundaries and Extent.] If Spain and Portugal might be considered as forming one country, no region in Europe is more completely defined by the hand of Nature: this country being on all sides surrounded by the sea, except where it joins France, and there the bounding-line running along a neck of land, is strongly marked by the Pyrenean mountains. Spain, considered in itself, is bounded on the N. by that part of the Atlantic which is known by the name of the Bay of Biscay; on the N.E. by the Pyrenean mountains; on the E. and S.E. by the Mediterranean; on the S. by part of the Mediterranean and the Straits of Gibraltar; on the S.W. by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the W. by the Atlantic and the kingdom of Portugal. This country lies entirely in the southern part of the temperate zone of Europe, and extends from Tarifa in 35° 57′ north latitude, to Cape Ortegal its most northern point, in 43° 44′ north latitude; and from Cape Finisterre its most north-western extremity, in 9° 18′ west longitude from Greenwich, to Cape Cruix at the south-eastern extremity of the Pyrenean mountains, in 3° 8′ east longitude. It lies therefore, almost under the same parallels with Ancient Greece, Sardinia, Naples, and Sicily; and its greatest length from E. to W. is 566 geographical, or 640 English miles; while its extreme breadth is 465 geographical, or 530 English miles. Exclusive of Portugal, its surface is estimated by Hassel at 25,145 square leagues of 25 to a degree, and by Balbi at 137,400 geographical or 183,000 English square miles; and allowing 40,000 British square miles for Portugal, the whole superficies of the Peninsula will be 223,000 British square miles. In the Atlantic ocean Spain possesses a few small islands near her own shores; and in the Mediterranean, the Baleares, the Pithyusæ, the Columbretæ, and the island of Alboran.

Name.] Though Spain was well-known to the Phœnicians, at least 1000 years before the Christian era, yet it appears to have been very imperfectly known to the Greeks in the time of Herodotus. Its gold and silver mines early excited the avidity of foreign nations; and the *Tarshish* of the Phœnicians and Hebrews appears to have been the small island of Tartessus near Cadiz, so denominated by the Greeks, and now called the Isle de Leon. This name seems to have been afterwards extended to the whole of the south of Spain, which at that early period was the Mexico of the Tyrians in the superabundance of the precious metals thence imported by these early navigators. Spain was also known to the Greeks under the name of *Iberia;* but whether it was so denominated by the natives themselves, or the name was imposed upon it by the Phœnician traders, is uncertain. If it was a foreign appellation, it might be derived from the Hebrew *Eber*, or from the Syriac or Phœnician *Ebra* or *Ibra*, in the singular number 'a passage,' and in the plural 'bounds,' or 'limits:' signifying that it was the limit or boundary of Phœnician navigation and commercial enterprise in these early times, or perhaps marking the passage

of a Moorish colony from the opposite coast of Africa, or of a Celtic emigration from Gaul across the Pyrenees. Before the time of Polybius, the name *Iberia*, however, could only be applied to that part of Spain which is bounded by the Pyrenees, the Mediterranean, and the Straits of Gibraltar: as the western and northern parts were then entirely unknown to the Greeks and Romans. It was also sometimes denominated *Hesperia* by the Greeks, from its western situation in respect of Greece; and *Hesperia Ultima*, to distinguish it from Italy, which was also denominated *Hesperia* by them. The term *Hesperia* is a classical appellation frequently used by the poets to designate the western part of our hemisphere. It was afterwards called *Hispania* by the Romans; but whether this was a native or foreign appellation is also uncertain. The very learned Samuel Bochart will have it, that the name *Spain* is derived from the Phœnician *Sphanjah*, or 'the land of rabbits,' because it abounded in these animals! When the Arabians possessed it, it was denominated by their geographers *Ebn Hawkel*, *Ebn al Wardi*, *Al Berjendi*; and, by Ismael Abulfedah, *Al Andalus*, or 'the West:' being the western extremity of the Moslem empire. Hence the modern name of *Andalusia* applied to the southern part of Spain.

Progressive Geography.] The progressive geography of Spain is very fluctuating. The Punic records having perished, we are totally ignorant of the Carthaginian division of this country. As for the Romans, they first divided it into *Hither* and *Further Spain*, immediately after the expulsion of the Carthaginians; which division—the interval of the Macedonian war excepted—existed till the time of Augustus Cæsar, who divided it into the three provinces of *Tarraconensis*, *Boetica*, and *Lusitania*,—an arrangement which was adhered to during the whole period of the Roman domination. Tarraconensis contained the north-eastern part of Spain; Boetica, the middle; and Lusitania, the western part of the peninsula. After the Gothic conquest of Spain, these divisions were obliterated. But when the Saracens had subjected it, a new and important division took place under the name of *Moorish* and *Christian Spain*, which paved the way for the present modern divisions, which are into 14 provinces:—

	Provinces.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns.	Population.
On the bay of Biscay.	1. Galicia.	165	120	Santiago, . Ferrol, Vigo, Corunna.	1,318,000
	2. Asturias, including Oviedo and Santillana.	124	55	Oviedo, . . Santillana, Santander, Gyon.	347,000
	3. Biscay, including Guipuzcoa and Alava.	140	55	Bilboa, . . Victoria, Durango.	302,200
On the French frontier.	4. Navarre.	92	45	Pampeluna, Tudela.	193,500
	5. Arragon, anciently comprehending Catalonia and the kingdom of Valencia.	190	105	Saragossa, . Jain, Huesca.	702,600

	Provinces.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns.	Population.
On the French frontier.	6. Catalonia. . . .	172	110	Barcelona, Girona, Tarragona, Fortosa.	920,900
On the Mediterranean, & Straits.	7. Valencia.	180	75	Valencia, . Alicant, Denia.	965,500
	8. Murcia.	87	65	Murcia, . . Carthagena, Lorca.	412,700
	9. Andalusia, including the kingdoms of Seville, Cordova, Jaen, and Granada.	273	140	Seville, . . Granada, Cordova, Cadiz.	2,156,700
	10. Estremadura. . . .	180	124	Badajoz. .	461,200
On the Portuguese frontier.	11. Leon, including Palencia, Valladolid, Toro, Zamora, and Salamanca.	167	96	Leon, . . Astorga, Salamanca.	985,000
In the middle.	12. Old Castile, including Burgos, Soria, Segovia, and Avila.	193	140	Burgos, . . Avila, Segovia.	1,014 000
	13. New Castile, including Toledo or Algarvia, Cuenca or La Siervia, La Mancha, Madrid, and Guadalaxara.	220	180	Madrid, . . Toledo, Talavera.	1,317,000
Islands.	14. The Balearic Isles, . .			Palma, . . .	229,100

The Cortes in 1822 divided the country into 51 provinces, which received their names from the chief town in each; but the king has not recognized this division.

CHAP. I.—HISTORY.

Historical Remarks.] Concerning the original population of Spain, little has been discovered that can claim much attention. From the proximity of its shores to Africa, it is probable that part of the aboriginal inhabitants may have proceeded from that region. The earliest portion of Spanish history which demands our regard is the details of the Carthaginian conquest B.C. 350. The Carthaginians seem to have been incited to the invasion of Spain by motives similar to those which instigated the Spaniards to attempt the conquest of America. If we may believe ancient historians, the wealth of Spain, when first visited by the Carthaginians, exceeded all that has been affirmed of any other nation. The country remained in the hands of the Carthaginians till it was wrested from them after a sanguinary struggle by the Romans. To those haughty and selfish republicans the conquest of Spain was still more difficult than to the Carthaginians. More than one army of the republic found its grave here, and Numantia resisted her best troops fourteen years; but, after various contests, in which the

Romans were often obliged to yield to the bravery of the Celtiberians and Cantabrians, the discipline of the former prevailed, and Spain was completely consolidated into a Roman province under the first imperial Cæsar. Augustus founded the towns or colonies of *Cæsar Augusta*, the name of which is preserved in the modern Saragossa, and *Augusta Emerita*, the modern Merida. Rome maintained its dominion over Spain for 400 years, and introduced its language, manners, and sciences.

Visigothic Empire.] In the reign of the emperor Honorius, the Vandals, Alani, and Suevi, invaded this region; and in 419 the gallant Valia founded the empire of the Visigoths in Spain, far from those countries in which their brethren had located themselves after leaving the shores of the Euxine and the Eastern Asgard. Having subdued the Peninsula and the southern provinces of Gaul, Euric introduced written laws; for until this reign, we are informed by Isidore, the Goths were governed by 'unwritten usages and customs.' Alaric, the son of Euric, promulgated an abridgment of the Theodosian code, A.D. 506, from which a knowledge of the civil law was easily gained by the priests of Gaul and Spain. It appears that the government of the Visigoths was an elective monarchy: the right of election being vested in the bishops and palatines, and a rude assent given to their choice by the clamours of the surrounding multitude. According to Marina, the Visigothic kings had supreme civil and criminal jurisdiction; but still the fundamental principle in all monarchies of Teutonic origin, that kings have no arbitrary power, was interwoven with the whole scheme and fabric of the government. Before the settlement of the Visigoths in Spain, it would seem that though the crown was elective, the right to be elected was confined to a particular family. Leovigild, the Arian king, who according to the old tradition of Spain, was painted 'in long robes, or robes of peace,' revised and consolidated the laws of Euric; he also destroyed the dominion of the Suevi in Galicia. His catholic son and successor, Recaredo, further reformed the code between 621 and 631.

Dominion of the Moors.] In the early part of the 8th century, the Moors or Saracens, having seized part of the Eastern empire, and conquered the greater proportion of the Gothic possessions in the north of Africa, led a formidable army into Spain at the instigation of Count Julian, who thus sought to revenge the violation of his daughter Florinda by king Roderick. In the battle of Xeres de la Frontera, fought in Andalusia, notwithstanding the desperate valour of the Goths, the Saracens were completely triumphant; and pursuing their advantage, soon subdued the best part of Spain, compelling the Goths to retire into the fastnesses of Asturias and Biscay, where the gallant Don Pelayo, a prince of the royal blood, in 718 placed himself at the head of his independent countrymen, and soon afterwards signally overthrew the Moorish general Al-Khaman, with a numerous army, in the strait of Covadonga. Pelayo having ruled his little territory in peace for a considerable time, died in 737. Encouraged by the discord which prevailed between the Moorish factions of the Ommiades and Abassides, the Goths, in 745, under the conduct of Alonso or Alphonso, surnamed the Catholic, the son-in-law of Pelayo—a favourite hero with native historians—rushed from their mountains, and attacking the northern parts of Galicia, rapidly made themselves masters of Leon, Astorga, Saldagna, Amaya, and Alava. Prompted by this success, Alphonso, in the following year, subdued part of Biscay, laid the foundation of the kingdom of Leon, and added to his new monarchy of Asturias, the level country at the foot of the mountains. In his third campaign,

he extended his ravages to that part of the country which is now known by the name of Portugal. Not yet daring to make settlements in the level country, the Goths laid it completely waste, so as to render it entirely a desert. Protected by this kind of frontier, they retired to their mountains; and, undisturbed by their enemies, gradually acquired new power. Alonso died in 757, and was succeeded by his son Froila, who pursued his father's successes and founded Oviedo.

Encouraged by the successful example of the hardy Asturians, the inhabitants of other parts of Spain resolved to resist the oppression of their invaders. According to the Spanish historians, upwards of six hundred Spanish gentlemen, having met by accident in 758 at the tomb of John the hermit, among the Pyrenees, after having performed their religious duties, began to converse concerning the miseries which had been occasioned to Spain by the Moorish invasion, and finally to represent to each other the glory which might be acquired by throwing off the ignominious yoke under which their country groaned. In consequence of this conference an association was immediately formed for the purpose of disowning and resisting the Moorish authority. Such is said to have been the foundation of the kingdom of Navarre, of which Garcia Ximenes was chosen king. Garcia Inigas, his successor, followed in his steps; and extended the kingdom of Navarre till it reached the frontiers of Biscay. About 920 Orthogno II. removed the seat of his government from Oviedo to Leon; and it is from this period that the kingdom of Asturias is lost in that of Leon. In 921, the Goths, who all professed the Christian religion, again descended boldly from the mountains to ravage the territories of the Moorish Mahomedans. In this expedition, the kingdoms of Leon and Navarre joined their forces, but the Mahomedans led out all their troops and completely overthrew the Christians, and might again have subjected to their dominion the northern part of Spain had they fully improved their advantage. Instead of this, however, they allowed the dispersed Christians to reunite their forces, and the latter watching their opportunity, again attacked their enemies, and in some measure revenged their late defeat. Unsuccessful in almost every quarter, the Moorish influence in Spain seemed rapidly to decline, and would, perhaps, have been in a short time totally annihilated, had not Abu Amir Mohammed Almansur, a Moorish general, in some degree retrieved the affairs of his countrymen in 979. Almansur took Leon and Barcelona, and ravaged Castile, Galicia, and Portugal. The territory of Castile, lying between the Gothic kingdom of Leon, and the Moorish caliphat or kingdom of Cordova, was about this period frequently invaded by both parties. At length the Christian interest began to prevail, and Castile was reckoned a part of the kingdom of Leon; but the superiority which was claimed soon appeared to be rather nominal than real, for the principal nobles of Castile regarded themselves as independent both of the Moors and the kings of Leon, and when one of the latter ventured to punish some of the chief inhabitants for what he called rebellion, the whole people formally renounced their allegiance and declared their country entirely independent. The supreme power was at first vested in two persons, styled judges; but it was soon changed into the monarchical form, in favour of Ferdinand I., son of the king of Navarre, who succeeded on the death of Bermudo III., the last male descendant of Pelayo, to the crown of Leon. In 1038, several of the Moorish governors threw off their allegiance to the caliph; and from this period we find independent

Moorish princes reigning at Saragossa, Toledo, Valencia, and Seville. Under the caliphs of Cordova, the most important benefits were conferred on Spain in every branch of public and domestic economy. Among these we may enumerate the introduction of the culture of rice, sugar, and cotton, the construction of the *azequias* or canals, and *norias* or reservoirs, by means of which, in the kingdom of Grenada and some other provinces, water is still distributed through barren tracts, and many other valuable improvements in agriculture and manufactures. Even Christian scholars from various European countries came to study in the Arabian academy at Cordova, from whence Arabian civilization shed its beams over Spain, France, Italy, Germany, and England. The population of Spain was very considerable at this time. Tarragona it is said had 350,000 inhabitants, and the rich city of Grenada numbered 70,000 houses, and 250,000 inhabitants, and is said to have furnished 50,000 warriors. The great Spanish hero, Don Rodrigo Diaz de Vivar el Compeador, usually called *the Cid*, who is frequently celebrated in the romantic poetry of Spain, died at Valencia in 1099. Raimond V. became by marriage, in 1135, king of Arragon, and his male descendants reigned there 258 years. Alphonso VI. king of Leon, Galicia, and a part of Portugal to the Mondego—which latter district he ceded to his son-in-law Henry of Burgundy—conquered the Arabian kingdom of New Castile or Toledo. The caliph of Cordova in 1087, called to his aid against the Christian princes another Mahomedan tribe, called the *Morabethans* or *Moravides*, who had founded Morocco in Africa. But soon after their arrival in Spain they conquered for themselves the smaller Moorish states. These were succeeded by the Almohades, another African race who crossed over into Spain and subdued the Spanish Moors, and attacked the Christians. They were defeated however by the united Christian princes in 1220, or, according to M. Cardonne, in 1210, at Tolosa in the Sierra Morena; and Ferdinand III., surnamed the Saint, having conquered Cordova, Murcia, Saen, Seville, and Cadiz, Granada became a tributary kingdom. From this period may be dated the greatness of the Spanish monarchy. The whole, however, was an imperfect union of isolated States; for the 22 provinces which formed the kingdom of Castile, had been only one after the other joined with Leon and Burgos. The interior organization was also checked by the imperfect administration, and the feuds of overgrown vassals, so that the *tiers-etat* was several years later of appearing here than in Arragon. The Cortes, or the Estates of the empire, consisting in the clergy, the high nobility, the orders of knighthood, and the deputies of the *ciudados* or large towns, met at Huesca in Arragon, in 1162, though deputies from towns were not received into the States-General of France till 1303, nor have we evidence of citizens and burgesses having been summoned to parliament in England before 1265. The kings of Arragon conquered in the 13th century the Moorish possessions in Murcia, Valencia, Majorca, and Minorca; and in 1282, when the French were driven from Sicily, it also came under the dominion of the kings of Arragon, who were related to the extinct house of the Hohenstaufen in Naples and Sicily. Sardinia was united with this monarchy in 1328. The kings of Castile also took Cordova, Seville, and Cadiz, from the Moors; and the king of Granada became a vassal of Alphonso X. who, during the long interregnum was titulary king of Germany.

The transactions of the Christian kingdoms of Spain—which had hitherto been confined within the Pyrenees, and consisted chiefly of wars with their

Mahommedan foes—now began to take a wider range, and to be connected with the other powers of Europe. The kingdom of Navarre had been united to France in 1284, by the marriage of Philip the Fair, with Joanna, queen of Navarre. This union continued till 1328; when, though the sovereigns of Navarre were still related to those of France, the kingdoms were considered as being entirely independent of each other. In 1350, Charles, king of Navarre, took in marriage the daughter of John, the French king; but so far was this alliance from uniting him in policy with his father-in-law, that he entered into a treaty with England against France, and had the art to inveigle the dauphin into the confederacy. In the meantime, Alphonso XI. king of Castile, who had rendered himself famous by taking the city of Algeziras from the Moors, had been succeeded by his son Peter, whose conduct seems deservedly to have entailed on him the epithet of the Cruel. Froissart has chronicled the campaigns in which the romantic valour of our own Edward the black prince, and the English troops under Chandos, replaced the suppliant monarch on the throne from which he had been justly driven by his indignant nobles. Henry of Transtamare, Peter's natural brother, headed the rebels and met Edward's army upon the banks of the Ebro, where Edward, with only one-third of his opponent's force, obtained a complete victory, and after having re-established Peter, returned to Guyenne. But Peter soon lost the friendship of the English prince, by refusing to pay the sum stipulated for the aid which he had received, while the cruelty which he still exercised over his subjects induced them again to revolt. Henry returned from France, whither he had fled after his defeat, and having defeated and put to death the ungrateful monarch, was immediately raised to the throne of Castile; and, notwithstanding the illegitimacy of his birth, his posterity continued to enjoy the same dignity. From the death of Henry of Transtamare to the death of Henry IV., the history of the Castilian monarchy presents little more than a series of intestine tumults and wars. In 1454, while the throne was filled by Henry, surnamed the Impotent, whose effeminacy and sloth disgusted the warlike spirits by whom he was surrounded, the offended nobles met at Avila, and went through a ceremony somewhat ridiculous, but sufficiently indicative of their intentions. In a temporary theatre, an image of the king, decorated with all the badges of royalty, was placed upon a throne; and to this image, as if it had been Henry in person, the accusation was read, and sentence of deposition formally addressed. When the first article had been rehearsed, the archbishop of Toledo removed the crown from the senseless representative of the monarch. When the second was finished, the sword of justice was seized by the Conde de Placentia. At the third, the Conde de Benavente snatched the sceptre; and at the close of the fourth, Don Diego Lopez de Xuniga tumbled the image from the throne, and Alphonso, Henry's brother, was proclaimed king. A civil war immediately ensued, in the early part of which, the prince who had been called to the monarchy died; but the nobles, instead of returning to their allegiance, elected Isabella, the king's sister, and carried on the war with unabated vigour till the feeble monarch was compelled to agree to a very humiliating treaty. By this treaty it was stipulated, that Joan, the reputed daughter of the monarch, should be excluded from the succession, and that Isabella should be acknowledged as his only lawful heir. Having succeeded so far in their undertaking, the nobles were careful to establish the power of Isabella by choosing for her a proper husband. Many offered their hands, but Ferdinand, son of the king of Arragon, was preferred. Henry now disinherited

his sister, and declared the claim of his daughter to be valid. The king of Arragon supported his daughter-in-law with all his forces; and the king of Portugal aided the cause of Joan to whom he was to have been espoused. But the party of Ferdinand and Isabella was much superior to that of their opponents, and Joan was obliged to retire into a convent, while Isabella took undisturbed possession of the throne; and her father-in-law dying soon after, the kingdom of Castile and Leon was united to those of Arragon and Sicily in 1469.

Ferdinand and Isabella.] The royal spouses first displayed their prudence in the steps which they took for the regulation of the civil concerns of their subjects. Every part of their territories, particularly the kingdom of Castile, had for some time been involved in almost perpetual civil wars; and it had become dangerous to pass from one part of the country to another, unless with such a force as might bid defiance to the numerous bands of robbers. The great proprietors of the country exercised the power of life and death upon their own estates; and as they sometimes patronized the freebooters by whom the country was infested, it was often a matter of the utmost difficulty to bring these offenders to punishment. To remedy an evil which seemed to threaten the very existence of society, the most vigorous measures became necessary, and it was on this occasion that the institution of the *Hermandad*, or 'Holy Brotherhood' took place. This was an association of cities for the purpose of protecting travellers, and bringing criminals to punishment. Contributions were enacted for the defraying of expenses; and troops were raised, and judges appointed for the decision of such causes as might be brought before them. The troops patrolled the country and seized suspicious persons, whom they brought before the judges, who passed sentence upon them without consulting the proprietor of the land on which the affair happened. To attack the ancient powers and privileges of the nobles, was a measure which could hardly fail to rouse their keenest feelings, and bring upon it their most formidable resentment; but Ferdinand and Isabella were ably supported in these vigorous measures by their minister the cardinal Ximenes; and had the fortitude to resist and crush every attempt on the part of the nobles to undermine the influence of the Hermandad.

Establishment of the Inquisition.] The regard for social order displayed by the joint sovereigns cannot be too much commended; but, unfortunately for Spain, Ferdinand and Isabella were remarkably superstitious, and History is compelled to turn aside from recording the triumphs of justice to instruct her readers respecting one unpardonable error committed by the illustrious Queen of Castile. The foundation of the horrible tribunal of the Inquisition casts an indelible blot on her reign, and on the memory of her minister Ximenes. Until this epoch, toleration had existed in Spain; Spanish princes and grandees had protected the persecuted Albigenses, and the kings of Arragon in the 13th century bade defiance to the anathemas of the papal chair. The first idea of this infernal institution had been conceived by Pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. In order to suppress the Albigenses, certain tribunals were instituted under the immediate control of the Papal court, with power to search out heretics and professors of erroneous doctrines, and punish them by fire, imprisonment, or death, as the offence might deserve. The proceedings of these tribunals were quite different from those of the civil courts; and in order that no feelings of humanity or justice might soften the stern rigour of their sen-

tence, the judges were not chosen from among the bishops or secular clergy, but from the orders of monks,—men who had renounced the tenderest feelings of humanity, and whose every passion was absorbed in that which regarded the aggrandisement of their church as the highest object at which they could aim. A Franciscan monk sat in the tribunal which gave forth the fearful sentence against the knight-templars in 1307; and the horrible institution completed by Gregory IX. in 1233, had been successfully introduced into Italy, and some parts of France and Germany, and even into Spain before the close of the 13th century; here, however, particularly in Castile and Leon, the judges named by the Pope had never been recognised, and the bishops maintained their right of judging in all ecclesiastical affairs. It is melancholy to relate that whilst this institution could never gain a firm footing even in those countries which first adopted it—as for example, France—it was reserved for Spain to give a permanent form to this equally anti-social and anti-Christian tribunal, which has acquired a sad celebrity under the name of *the Spanish Inquisition*.—In 1480, at a general Diet held in Toledo, the proposal for the establishment of a Supreme Inquisition was made to the estates of the kingdom; and though received by them with the greatest opposition, the first tribunal was opened at Seville in the succeeding year, by Thomas de Torquemada, prior of the convent of Dominicans in that city. Torquemada, who was beyond all contradiction one of the most exemplary and learned members of his order, had been confessor to Isabella during the reign of Henry IV.; and so long back as that period had instigated her to make a solemn vow to the Almighty that she would visit with punishment offences against what he termed the Catholic faith, in the event of her succession to the throne. Isabella was from infancy completely misled upon this subject; and moreover she had been taught to believe that priests, whose morals were exemplary and whose learning was approved by the dignitaries of the church, were so many oracles to whom she was commanded by God to give ear. Thus it was, according to the testimony of Liágno and Llorente, that a queen otherwise a model for sovereigns, a woman endowed with gentle manners and a generous mind, was capable of instituting a tribunal so sanguinary and necessarily unjust. Almost every person was enlisted in the service of this infernal institution; the very pleasures and innocent gaieties of life were converted into so many snares to entrap its unsuspecting victims; its innumerable spies gave it the attribute of ubiquity, and repressed the breathings of liberty even in the very soul itself. All reason, all humanity was compelled to fall down and do homage to the dogma of implicit faith in the church's decrees and doctrines; for this, bonds, hitherto regarded as the most inviolable between man and man, were torn asunder; the parricide was not subjected to more condign punishment than he who dared to hint a suspicion of the Pope's infallibility; the grave could not shelter a victim from the persecution of this tribunal, and even the very inanimate possessions of a heretic were held as things accursed, and destroyed where it was practicable. The boldness of the sentences pronounced by this fearful tribunal were only surpassed by the cruelty with which they were executed. By adding the ridiculous to the horrible, and investing the spectacle of its executions with as much singularity as possible, compassion was weakened, and rising sympathy stifled in contempt. The victim of the Inquisition was led to execution with solemn pomp; a red flag was carried before the procession, and the tolling of bells accompanied it; a band of priests walked first, chanting hymns; then followed the condemned sinner, dressed in a yellow

frock upon which black demons were painted; on his head he wore a bonnet of paper, on the top of which a human figure was painted, surrounded by flames and demons. The crucifix, the sign of redemption, was carried with its back turned upon him, to intimate that he had no longer a part in eternal salvation,—that while his body was devoted to the flames, his immortal soul was consigned to hell; and his mouth was gagged to prevent him exciting the compassion of the spectators by the recital of his torments, or divulging the secrets of the holy office. He was followed by the clergy, the magistrates, and the nobility; the holy fathers by whom he had been judged closed the horrid pageant. The Auto da Fe was generally fixed for a holiday, and a number of victims were always kept in the cells of the Inquisition till it came round, in order to make the spectacle more impressive by the very number of the victims; kings imagined themselves bound to be present at the execution of the heretics, and were seated with an uncovered head on a chair lower than that of the grand Inquisitor, in this solemn occasion. Who would not tremble before a tribunal to which even royal power yielded precedence! The Reformation produced by Luther and Calvin, added force to the reasons which had first given rise to the Inquisition, and all the tribunals of the holy office in Portugal, Italy, Germany, and France adopted the forms of the Spanish Inquisition, which was also introduced into India, where the tribunal at Goa, under pretence of doing God service, committed enormities the very recital of which makes our blood run cold. Wherever the footsteps of the holy office may be traced, the path is marked with blood; but in no part of the world has it run such a sanguinary career as in Spain. The victims may be forgotten who have been sacrificed to it,—successive generations of men may arise, —and the countries which have been laid waste by the pestilence of its presence may flourish again,—but long centuries must roll over Spain, ere its Inquisition can be forgotten. It was this hellish invention which checked a spirited and noble nation in the midst of its career of improvement,—it banished genius from a country of which it was a native,—and impressed the silence and inactivity of the grave on the mind of a people which seemed more perhaps than any other in Europe to have been created with a natural disposition to cheerfulness and gaiety. Even in modern times when the spirit of persecution had relented in almost all countries of Europe, the constitution of the Inquisition was still but little changed in Spain, although its fearful executions were somewhat less frequent. The horrible spectacle of an Auto da Fe was not often exhibited in the last century; but the whole institution nevertheless continued a formidable instrument in the hands of despotism. So late as 1780 a poor woman was burnt alive at Seville, by its sentence; and the efforts of enlightened men under the two last reigns to destroy this superannuated institution of darkness not only failed, but some of them involved their supporters in destruction. The proceedings in 1806 against the two canons Antonio and Geronimo Cuesta, demonstrated that the pernicious influence of the Inquisition was not then wholly extinct. In 1808 this institution, loaded with the curses of humanity, was abolished by an ordonnance of the emperor Napoleon, as also by the government of the Spanish patriots who opposed his invasion; but it was re-established by the bigotted Ferdinand when he mounted the throne. By the Revolution which established the constitution of the Cortes it was again abolished in 1820; and though absolute power has been restored to the king, he has not yet succeeded, notwithstanding the fanatical priests by whom he is supported, in re-establishing

the bloody tribunal of the holy office in its ancient power and form. According to a calculation which Llorente gives in his History of the Inquisition in Spain, the number of its victims from 1481 to 1808 amounted to the fearful number of 341,021! Of these 31,912 were burned alive; 17,659 in effigy; and upon 291,456 severe penance was imposed; but the tortures inflicted upon its hapless victims, during their mock trials, for the purpose of extorting confessions, are too horrible for description!

The reign of Ferdinand and Isabella was distinguished by high feats of war; even the cardinal Ximenes himself made a campaign in North Africa. Ferdinand completed what all the efforts of former kings had for many centuries been unable to effect—the total subjugation of the Moorish power in Spain, which he effected by the conquest of Grenada, after an arduous contest of eight years. By his favourite general Gonsalvo de Cordova, he also subjected a large proportion of the Neapolitan dominions. But the event of this reign, which has exercised most influence not only in Spain but in the whole world, was the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus in 1492. That daring navigator, though only supported by Isabella with three small vessels, after a navigation of 70 days reached Guanahani one of the Antilles. He was at first covered with honours, but afterwards loaded with ingratitude by the sovereigns for whom he had discovered a new world! Ferdinand and Isabella in the zenith of their power formed an alliance with the emperor Maximilian, by betrothing their daughter Joan to his son Philip, archduke of Austria, and sovereign of the Netherlands. Upon the death of Isabella in 1506, Philip took possession of the kingdom of Castile, but he died shortly afterwards, leaving his dominions to his son Charles.

Charles I.] Charles, who as king of Spain was called Charles I., succeeded his father in the Netherlands; his maternal grandfather in Spain in 1516; and his paternal grandfather in the Austrian possessions—of which he ceded a part to his younger brother Ferdinand—in 1519. It is chiefly as a Spanish monarch that this accomplished despot, the contemporary of Erasmus, and of Luther, and of Frederic the Wise, elector of Saxony, deserves the unqualified indignation of the historian. A rebellion which broke out in Valencia and Majorca, in 1520, and in Castile, where the *tiers-état* demanded a more liberal constitution, was stifled by the co-operation of the nobles, and the most important rights of the nation were annihilated by the division of the representative assemblies. During Charles' reign Mexico and Peru were conquered; the first by Cortes in 1518, and the latter by Pizarro and Almagro in 1528; but the treasures of the new world were not sufficient to support the expenses of perpetual wars; the taxes were increased instead of being diminished, the revenue was exhausted, and the government loaded with debts, though the first wars with France, by which Charles acquired Milan, raised Spain to the rank of the first military and political power in Europe. The victory at Pavia, on the 24th of February 1525, which placed Francis I. of France in Charles's hands, the peace of 14th January 1526, and Charles's glorious campaign in North Africa, spread the fame of the Spanish arms over the whole world. The new war, however, against Henry II. of France proved fatal to Charles, who lost by it the three Lorraine bishoprics, and was forced by Maurice, the new elector of Saxony, to enter into the treaties of Passau in 1552. In 1554 Charles gave the kingdom of Naples to his son Philip, to whom he had already, in 1540, given the rich duchy of Milan as a fief; in 1555 he ceded to him the Netherlands; and in 1556 he abdicated also

the Spanish crown in favour of his son, who mounted the throne under the name of Philip II. while his father retired into the convent of St Ildefonso, where he died on the 21st of September 1558, overwhelmed by melancholy under which he had been labouring for some time.

Philip II.] Philip II., who was married to Queen Mary of England, was a narrow-minded and despotical man. During a reign of 42 years, his ambition exhausted the revenues of that vast monarchy which had been left to him by his father. In the peace of Chateau-Cambresis, concluded on the 4th of April 1559, he indeed victoriously ended the struggle with France; but the master of Spain, Burgundy, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, Milan, the Canary and Cape-Verd Islands, of the richest of the Antilles, Mexico, Peru, Chili, and the Philippines, to which were added in 1581, after the death of Henry III. the kingdom of Portugal with its colonies, was not able to reduce the seven provinces of the United Netherlands, which, revolting under tyrannical oppression and religious intolerance, threw off the Spanish yoke in 1579. Oceans of blood were shed by Philip's sanguinary agents, especially by the cruel duke of Alba; but his efforts were vain; liberty finally prevailed, and the victorious banners of the new republic floated over the ruins of a country laid waste by fanaticism and bigotry. His son, Carlos, accused of a conspiracy against the life of his father, ended his life in prison, probably by poison, in 1568; and his invincible fleet, the Armada, with which he thought to conquer England, was destroyed by storms and the gallantry of the English.

Philip III.] Philip II. was succeeded by his son, by his fourth wife Anna of Austria, who, or rather his favourite the duke of Lerma in his name, reigned from 1598 to 1621. He was certainly more imbecile than his predecessor, and, if possible, more bigotted and superstitious. A peace with England was concluded in 1604, and an armistice for 12 years with the Netherlands in 1609; but Spain suffered an irreparable loss in population and wealth during this reign by the expulsion of the Moriscoes or descendants of the Moors. They were allowed thirty days to banish themselves; and death was the punishment appointed for such as remained after the specified term. By this impolitic act, and the subsequent expulsion of the Jews, Spain lost above 600,000 of its most industrious inhabitants, besides those who were successively butchered,—a loss which transferred five-sixths of her commerce and manufactures to other countries, and reduced the public revenue from thirty to fourteen millions of ducats.

Philip IV.] Under Philip IV. who reigned from 1621 to 1665, Portugal, severely oppressed by the Spanish government, shook off its bonds by a happily conducted revolution which placed the house of Braganza on the throne in 1640. The war with the Netherlands was renewed to no other purpose than to insure the independence of the new republic, which Spain was obliged to recognise in the peace of Westphalia in 1648. During the Thirty years' war France acted against Spain which was allied to Austria; and this struggle was not even terminated by the Westphalian peace, but continued till the peace of the Pyrenees concluded on the 7th of November 1659, in which Roussillon and Perpignan were ceded to France, and the marriage of Louis XIV. with a princess of Spain concerted.

Charles II. to Charles III.] Philip IV. was succeeded by his weak

son Charles II., who reigned from 1665 to 1700, during which time the kingdom fell utterly into decay, in consequence of the imbecile conduct of an administration always wavering in its principles, and of three successive wars with France, which were severally concluded by the treaties of Aix la Chapelle in 1668; Nimiguen in 1679; and Ryswick in 1697. After long hesitation whether to institute the archduke Charles of Austria, or Philip of Anjou, his heir, Charles decided in his testament for the latter, to prevent the division of the Spanish monarchy which had been planned by England, Holland, and France. Louis XIV. recognised his grandson as king of Spain; but the house of Austria advanced claims on the monarchy, whilst William III., king of England, and Stadtholder of the Netherlands, urged a partition. From these contending claims and views arose the Spanish war of Succession, which lasted thirteen years. Philip V. by the peace of Utrecht and Basle remained in possession of Spain and the colonies belonging to it; but Belgium, Naples, Sicily, and Milan were resigned to Austria; Sardinia to Savoy; and Minorca and Gibraltar to England. Upon the marriage of Philip with his second wife, Elisabeth Farnese, cardinal Alberoni, a native of Parma, came to Spain, and was soon afterwards placed at the head of affairs. The cardinal did much for a better organization of the interior administration; but in supporting Elisabeth's plan to procure for her sons—who had no prospect of the succession to Spain—an inheritance in Italy, which scheme was foiled by the intervention of the other European powers, Alberoni wrought his own downfall. Spain refused to ratify the peace of Utrecht, and in 1717 surprised Sicily and Sardinia, and threatened Naples. But George I. of England offered to guarantee the peace, and the British fleet defeated the Spanish at Cape Passaro in 1718, while 6,000 Austrians were transported in English vessels into Naples and Sicily, and France during the regency of the duke of Orleans also declared against Spain. Philip was thus forced to dismiss Alberoni in 1719, and to renounce his Italian possessions. However, in the peace of Vienna, Spain obtained the crowns of Naples and Sicily for the prince Charles, ceded Parma to Austria, and renounced the fief of Tuscany. Spain allied with France, took part in the Austrian war of succession. Ferdinand VI., who mounted the throne in 1746, recalled his troops. Philip, the second son of the queen Elisabeth, obtained in the peace of Aix la Chapelle the duchies of Parma, Piacenza and Guastalla from Austria. Philip V. did more for the country than any of its old princes since the days of Charles I. Though a staunch Catholic, he neither surrendered his rights to the Pontiff, nor allowed the Inquisition to interfere with them. His attention to manufactures and commerce not only diffused greater comfort among the labouring classes, but added considerably to his revenues. In this line of conduct he was imitated with zeal and success by his successors Ferdinand VI. and Charles III. Under the latter the population of Spain reached 11,000,000, though when Philip V. ascended the throne it was no more than 7,500,000. From the commencement of Ferdinand's reign to the close of that of his successor, the revenue increased from about 26,000,000 to 60,000,000 of crowns; the marine was trebled; the army raised to 148,000; and commerce flourished in equal proportion. Ferdinand VI. became deranged in 1758, and his stepbrother, Charles of Naples, assumed the regency, and ultimately succeeded to the crown of Spain in 1759, under the name of Charles III. As Spain and Naples were never to be reunited, Charles named his third son Ferdinand, king of Naples. In 1761 he signed the family-treaty be-

tween the houses of Bourbon, got up by the French minister Choiseul, and took part in the war of France against England. In the peace of Paris of 1763, he ceded the Floridas to England, in consideration of that power renouncing Cuba and Manilla, which she had conquered; and on the other hand, France ceded Louisiana, west of the Mississippi, to Spain, and that portion of it lying east of the Mississippi was ceded to Great Britain. During this reign several good measures were carried into effect by the two Spanish ministers, the counts of Aranda and Florida Blanca. In the maritime war against Portugal, in 1776, Spain obtained the Portuguese colony, San Sacramento, on the river Plata. During the North American war, in consequence of the family-treaty, Spain again ranged herself on the side of France, and warred with England from 1779 to 1783; she, however, in the peace of Versailles in 1783, preserved Minorca, which had been reconquered, and East and West Florida.

Charles IV.] In 1788 Charles IV. succeeded his father in the Spanish throne. With him came all the evils of the old regime, and the nation retrograded with amazing rapidity. Urged by the family-treaty, as well as by his own feelings, after the execution of Louis XVI. he ordered the French ambassador to leave Madrid, whereupon the Republic declared war against Spain, on the 7th of March 1793. Spain thereupon formed an alliance with England. The duke of Alcudia (Godoi), the favourite of both the king and queen, conducted the Spanish affairs at this juncture. The fortune of war enabled the Spaniards to begin the contest upon the French soil, but Dugomier, Moncey, and Perignon, quickly transported the theatre of war back to Spain again, and forced her to conclude the peace of Basle, on the 22d of July 1795, in which Spain separated itself from the coalition, and ceded to France the Spanish part of the island of St Domingo. It was on account of this peace that Godoi received from the king the title of *Prince of Peace.* This peace was followed by a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance between Spain and France in 1796, and by a declaration of war on the part of Spain against England, on the 5th of October. But the Spanish fleet under Langara was defeated on the 14th of February 1797, at Cape St Vincent, by admiral Jervis, and Minorca and Trinidad were taken by the British. Spain hereupon declared war against Portugal, the ally of England, on the 22d of February 1801; but this struggle was not carried on with much vigour, and was finished by the peace of Badajoz, in which Portugal ceded to Spain the district of Olivenza. The first consul, however, refused to ratify this peace, and thus accelerated the conclusion of the peace of Amiens with England in 1802, in which the colonies of Spain, with the exception of the Island of Trinidad, were restored. Previous to this transaction, the prince of Parma, son-in-law of Charles IV., had been recognized king of Etruria; and Parma and Louisiana given to France.

When, in 1803, the struggle between France and England was renewed, Spain endeavoured to preserve its neutrality, but was compelled to pay large subsidies to France—whereupon Britain seized four of its register ships returning from America with bullion, and war was declared between the two countries. In this contest the combined French and Spanish fleets suffered a heavy loss by the memorable battle of Trafalgar, fought on the 21st of October 1805. In Autumn 1806, when Napoleon was engaged in war with Russia, Spain, provoked at his interference, began to arm against him; but after the battle of Jena, she was necessitated to conceal

her dissatisfaction, and assist her imperious ally with an army of 24,000 men, which were drafted into Germany.

Revolution.] Scarcely had the peace of Tilsit put an end to the war between France, Prussia, and Russia, when a mysterious conspiracy of the prince of Asturias against his father—imputed by the Spaniards to the machinations of Godoi, the Prince de la Paz, a man completely subservient to Napoleon—furnished Napoleon with a new pretence for interfering in the affairs of the royal family of Spain. The palace of the Prince of Peace, who was known to have entered into a secret treaty with Napoleon for the partition of Portugal, was assailed in the night of the 17th of March by a furious mob, while the French troops were rapidly advancing upon the capital, and, on the 19th March, Charles IV. was compelled to abdicate the crown "in favour of his very dear son," Ferdinando Carlos. Napoleon, of course, refused to recognise the new king Ferdinand VII., but invited him to an interview at Bayonne. Meanwhile Murat entered Madrid, and a sort of military government was established in the metropolis, the French general, Grouchy, being made governor of the city, Ferdinand left Madrid on the 14th of April to meet Napoleon; and the anxiety of the people to learn the result of his interview soon rose to a ferocious height. It is well known that Napoleon having got Ferdinand into his power, compelled him to accede to the cession atrociously extorted from his father, and to renounce the rights accruing to him as Prince of Asturias. When the mockery of negotiation was at an end, the whole of the royal family were ordered to be sent into the interior of France. The 2d of May had been fixed on for the departure of the queen of Etruria and her brother for Bayonne, and it was reported among the agitated populace of Madrid, that the Infante, Don Antonia, the president of the provisional government, had been ordered by Murat to join his brother and nephew at Bayonne. Murat had recalled some troops to Madrid, and the people supposing that he intended to seize the person of the Infante, and make himself regent, rose en masse, and begun a desperate but ineffectual struggle with the 60,000 French troops in the city. Buonaparte now summoned an assembly of the Notables, as he styled it, to be held at Bayonne on the 15th of June, and in the meantime confirmed Murat as lieutenant-general of the kingdom. On the 6th of June, he named his brother Joseph king of Spain and the Indies, and guaranteed to him the independence and integrity of his States in the four quarters of the world. Spain, however, did not so tamely submit to the insult as Holland. No sooner were the measures at Madrid and the transactions at Bayonne known, than they fled to arms over the whole peninsula. Asturias and Gallicia were the first provinces that raised the standard of freedom; Catalonia and Navarre were in the possession of the French; every where the flame burst forth, and Palafox, by his heroic defence of Saragossa, taught the people what they could achieve, and the French what they might expect from a generous nation in arms for the protection of all that was dearest to the heart of a Spaniard. The inhabitants of Seville called upon the constituted authorities to appoint a supreme board of government, and the choice fell upon men truly patriotic and enlightened, who, on the 6th of June 1808, issued a declaration of war against the emperor of France, from the palace of Alcazar, in Seville. In this instrument they protested that they would not lay down their arms till Napoleon had restored their king, Ferdinand VII., and the rest of the royal family, and manifested his resolution to respect the sacred rights of the nation which

he had violated. One of the first measures of the junta of Asturias was to despatch two noblemen as deputies to crave the assistance of Britain, and nobly did the heart of England respond to the call! Arms, ammunition, and cloathing, were immediately despatched to the northern provinces; the Spanish prisoners were released and sent home; and in the king's speech at the close of the session, Spain was recognised as a friend and ally. The French general Dupont was defeated by general Reding at Baylen, and surrendered to the victor; nevertheless, Joseph presented himself at Madrid, and assumed the reins of government, but was compelled to make a precipitate retreat within ten days. Napoleon having put himself at the head of the French armies in Spain, reinstated his brother in authority at Madrid on the 4th of December 1808. Sir John Moore at the head of the British troops which had been sent to Portugal, entered Spain and advanced against Soult; but the plan of the expedition was most unfortunate, and the first campaign of the British arms in Spain, closed with the hasty embarkation of our troops on the 17th of January 1809, after the fight of Corunna, in which the gallant Moore fell. Joseph's intentions were good, though in all respects he was but the tool of his imperial brother. He gave fair scope to national industry by abolishing all corporation rights and feudal immunities.

British Campaigns.] At the moment that the British army was retiring from the peninsula, a treaty was signed at London, between Great Britain and Spain, pronouncing an entire oblivion of all acts of hostility on either side in the course of the late wars, and in which his Britannic majesty engaged to continue to assist the Spanish nation in their arduous struggle against France. Fourteen thousand British troops had been left at Lisbon when the army under Sir John Moore began its march; these were subsequently reinforced, and Sir Robert Wilson had raised a body of 2,000 volunteers at Oporto. On the 22d of April 1809, Sir Arthur Wellesley landed at Lisbon and assumed the command, and, after five campaigns, distinguished by brilliant operations on the part of the allies, and persevering patriotism on the part of the Spanish nation, which our limits do not permit us to narrate, the French were, after the decisive battle of Vittoria, entirely driven from Spain, and the war tranferred to the soil of France.

Restoration of Ferdinand.] Buonaparte, finding the peninsula wrenched from his grasp, made a virtue of necessity, and released Ferdinand, who was no sooner at liberty, and the British arms removed from Spain, than he abolished, by a decree from Valencia, of the 4th of May 1814, the constitution given by the Cortes in 1812, and declared all the steps taken by that body and the regency to have been illegal. The tyranny of this wretched creature, who restored the Inquisition, excited a rebellion which broke out in certain regiments cantoned in the Island of Leon, and between Cadiz, Granada, and Seville, on the 1st of January 1820. At the head of this movement were the colonels Quiroga and Riego, the latter of whom in particular was a noble-minded man, sincerely devoted to the good of his country. The king opposed them with an army under the command of general Freyre; but numbers of his troops passed over to the rebels, and the wish for a new order of things was so vigorously evinced throughout the country, and even in Madrid itself, that the king found himself compelled, on the 7th of March 1820, to declare his willingness to swear to the constitution of the Cortes. This was done in the assembly of the Cortes on the 9th of July 1820, after which the

Inquisition and torture were again abolished, the Jesuits sent out of Spain, and the press declared free. The court or Camerilla, and of course the clergy, were opposed to the new constitution, but it kept its ground in a bloody struggle with the royal guards at Madrid, on the 7th of July 1822. The Holy alliance were highly displeased with the new constitution of Spain, and their resolutions to this effect, drawn up at the Congress of Verona, were expressed to the Spanish ministry in a declaration dated the 6th of January 1823, while Great Britain, though she did not concur in those measures, did nothing to support the cause of liberty in Spain or to prevent an armed intervention. France had already placed a *cordon sanitaire* on the Spanish frontier, under the pretence of guarding against the introduction of the yellow fever from the latter country; but on the 7th of April 1823, a French army crossed the Bidassoa and occupied Madrid, while the king and the Cortes retired to Seville, and from thence to Cadiz. The French, experiencing very little resistance from the disunited people, advanced upon the latter city, and the Cortes seeing themselves foiled in every effort to protect the liberties of their country, dissolved themselves on the 28th of September 1823, by which step absolute power was again restored to the king, who appeared in the French head-quarters on the 1st of October, and having declared all transactions of the Cortes illegal, after his return to Madrid began to exercise his power with a cruelty which the duke of Angouleme, and the Russian ambassador, count Pozzo di Borgo, and count Guilleminot, who were at the head of the French troops, endeavoured in vain to mitigate. Several corps of Guerillas in different parts of Spain still resisted; and the gallant Riego was taken prisoner, and executed on the 7th of November 1823, under circumstances of the most atrocious cruelty. Part of the French army remained in the country to aid the restoration of order, while all liberals who were able to fly, sought refuge in France and Great Britain. A royal ordonnance issued in October 1824, named all the local magistrates throughout the kingdom, and thus annihilated the last right of the communes to elect their own magistrates. But in spite of the presence of the French troops, and the iron-hand with which the government acted against all those who dared to resist its plans, peace was far from being restored to Spain. The national debt had risen to 8,009 millions of reals; and the deficit in the revenue was, in 1824, 590 millions of reals; while, besides the liberal party in Spain, another arose which sought for a still more rigorous and absolute system than Ferdinand had power to establish, and which, headed by the most fanatical part of the priesthood, pretended to raise the Infant, Don Carlos, Ferdinand's brother, to the throne. This unhappy country still remains in a state of fermentation and misgovernment, from which it is to be feared it will not soon be released. The French troops have withdrawn from the country, and anarchy and misrule and wretchedness pervade it from one coast to the other.

Colonies.] In 1806 the Spanish American colonies began to revolt, and, with the exception of the islands of Cuba and Puerto Rico, they have since succeeded in emancipating themselves from the sway of the mother-country. The proceedings by which these new States have been established, will be more properly related when we come to the geography of America.

CHAP. II.—PHYSICAL FEATURES—CLIMATE AND PRODUCTIONS.

The general elevation of this region is higher than that of any other European country. The appearance of Spain is in many places delightful, presenting an alternation of mountainous ridges and 'immense horizon-bounded plains,' almost every where watered by considerable rivers with their smaller branches. The greater part of the country is fertile, and is covered with a luxuriant vegetation,—especially in the south, which in some places seems a garden in perpetual bloom. Indeed, with regard to external appearance, few countries equal Spain. The declination is towards the Atlantic and Mediterranean; but more towards the W. and S., than towards the N.

Mountains. Cantabrian Chain.] The mountains of Spain are regarded by German geographers as all belonging to the Pyrenean system. Upon inspecting the map, our readers will see six ridges of mountains, pervading the country in various directions, exclusive of the Pyrenean chain, dividing Spain from France, and already described in our article on the latter country. The most northern chain is an elongation of the Pyrenees. It runs in a westerly direction, separating Biscay from Navarre and Alava; and, passing to the south of the Asturias, terminates in different branches in the northern parts of Galicia. This chain goes under different appellations, as the *Mountains of Biscay*, the *Sierra of Asturias*, and the *Mountains of Mondonedo*. It is also known by the names of the *Mountains of Santillana*, or of *Vindho*. They were known to the Romans by the name of the *Cantabrian Mountains*, and the people inhabiting that lofty and rugged region were not brought under their dominion, till the time of Augustus.[1] It was to this northern chain that the Goths were driven by the Moors, after the defeat and death of Roderic; and it was here, that under the brave Pelayo, they made a bold and successful stand,

> 'When Cava's traitor-sire first call'd the band,
> That dyed Spain's mountain-streams with Gothic gore.'

Iberian Chain.] The second chain of Spanish mountains extends from near Soria on the N.E. to Portugal on the S.W. When it approaches the latter country it is distinguished by the name of *Mount Gata*. Pursuing its course through Portugal, it is known by the name of the *Mountains of Estrella*, and, dividing the province of Beira from Portuguese Estremadura, terminates a little to the N. of the mouth of the Tajo in the Cabo de Cintra. This range divides Old Castile from New Castile, and passes to the south of Salamanca, separating Leon from Spanish Estremadura. Its direction is very curvilinear. In the early part of its course it is called by the names of *Guadarrama*, *Urbia*, and *Mons Carpetanus*. The Sierras de Oca, de Moncago, de Molina, and de Cuenca are divisions of this ridge.

Sierra de Guadaloupe, &c.] The third range is a lateral ridge strik-

[1] If we except the Alps, Pyrenees, Apennines, and other chains in countries civilized at an early period, and in which men are found able to generalize and classify, there is perhaps not one range of mountains in the world distinguished by an uniform appellation. It may be observed here, that the term *Sierra*—which is peculiar to Spain—means a chain of mountains whose successive peaks present to the view the appearance of a saw. This term is also frequently used in Spanish America with reference to mountainous peaks rising in successive elevation.

ing off from the northern chain, at the Asturian frontiers, and running in a south-eastern direction between Old Castile and Navarre, till it arrives at the frontiers of Arragon, and changes its course to the S.W., where a fourth range, intersecting New Castile, and entering Estremadura, terminates to the north of the Guadiana near the Portuguese frontier. This range assumes different names in different parts of its progress; but is denominated, in the early part of its course, the *Mountains of Toledo*, or *Guadaloupe*. The second and third ranges—which may be justly termed the central ridges of Spain—appear to be chiefly granitic.

Sierra Morena.] As we approach the south, a low fifth range appears, called the *Sierra Morena*, or 'the Brown Mountains,' and which, in the latter times of Saracen domination, constituted the boundary between Moorish and Christian Spain. It commences to the S.W. of Cuenca in New Castile, and passing through La Mancha and part of Estremadura, terminates in Cape St Vincent, about 70 English miles to the N.W. of Seville in Andalusia. This chain is also known to geographers under the name of the *Montes Mariani.*

Sierra Nevada.] The sixth range commences to the eastward of the range last mentioned, and, bending in a south-western, and then in a direction almost due west, separates in its course the provinces of Granada and Murcia from Andalusia, and terminates to the north-east of Cadiz. This range is denominated the *Sierra Nevada*, or 'the Snowy ridge,' from having its lofty summits covered the whole year with snow and ice; and must be very elevated from the circumstance of its being visible, in a clear day, from the opposite coast of Africa. This chain takes consecutively the denominations of Sierra de Gador, de Nevada, de Bermeja, and de Ronda. The perpetual snow-line on the Sierra Nevada begins at the height of 3,305 varas or 9,171 English feet above the level of the sea. On the other ranges it seldom lies above a few months. Many of the Spanish mountains are entirely barren, and exhibit nothing but a naked assemblage of the most picturesque crags; others are covered with a scanty crop of grass and brushwood; but some, particularly in the Cantabrian ridge, the Sierras Morena and Nevada, and in Catalonia, Navarre, and Arragon, are clothed with magnificent forests. Firs, oaks, and cork-trees grow in the higher regions; chesnuts, tamarisks, pines, and beeches clothe the lower. The height of the principal mountains of Spain is given in the subjoined note.[2]

[2] Height of the principal mountains of Spain.

	Varas.	English feet.
Cumbre de Mulahacen in the Sierra Nevada of Granada, .	4,254	11,698
Picacho de Venteta, do. do.	4,153	11,121
Alpujarras of Granada, by Pluer, ...		9,168
Inferior limit of perpetual snow, in the Mulahacen, . . .	3,305	9,171
Do. do. do. Pyrenees, . . .	2,921	8,116
Sierra del Gaov. in the Alpujarras of Granada, . . .	2,600	7,150
Summit of the Penatara, in the Sierra de Guadarrama, . .	2,834	7,791
Gaviara, near the Minho, Gallician chain, ...		7,886
Pic de Mosset, Eastern Pyrenees, 1236 toises, ...		7,920
San Ildefonso, chain of the Tagus, Old Castile, . . .		6,679
Sierra de Lujar, S. of Granada, ...	2,287	6,289
Cabeza de Maria, coast of Valencia, ...	2,287	6,289
Puebla de Nova Serrada, on the road from Madrid to San Ildefonso, ...	2,204	6,051
Estetta in Catalonia, by Delambre, ...		5,805
Cerrajon de las Muertas, Alpujarras, ...	1,770	4,868
Collado de Plata, near Toruel, Iberian chain, ...	1,598	4,395
Pass of Lunada, Gallician chain, ...		4,711
Mean elevation of the Iberian chain in Arragon, . . .	1,580	4,345

Rivers.] Spain has 230 rivers, of which some are navigable, but most of them have too shallow and stony beds, and are too much affected by the heats of summer, for the purposes of navigation. Among those which flow into the Atlantic the most remarkable are: 1*st.* the Tajo, called Tejo in Portugal, which is a large river, but not navigable on account of its numerous cliffs and shallow water. Its source is in the Sierra de Albarracin in Arragon; it flows through the Campo de Tajo to Cuenca; on the limits of Soria and Guadalaxara; through a part of Madrid and Toledo; waters the gardens at Aranjuez, runs through Estremadura, and enters Portugal at Sedilla. To its 26 tributary rivers belong the Oceseca, the Gallo, the Xarama, the Guadarrama, the Alberche, the Alagon, the Herja, the Guadiela, the Araya, and the Sever.—2*d.* The Duero is a large river which rises in the Sierra de Urbia in Soria, not far from Durucla, and flows first to the east towards Hinojosa, and then to the S. towards Soria; after which it proceeds in an entirely western direction through Burgos, Valladolid, Zamora, and Salamanca, and forms from Villarimo till Torre de Moncorvo, the boundaries of Portugal, and then enters that kingdom. It is too rapid for being navigable in Spain. Among its 25 tributary rivers are the Ebros, the Rejas, the Jaramillo, the Pisuerga, the Esla, the Cea, and the Agueda.—3*d.* The Guadiana has its sources in the Lagune of Ruidera in La Mancha. It runs first towards the N.W.; and after losing itself in the marshes and swamps of the Partido de San Juan in Toledo, collects itself again in La Mancha, and takes a S.W. direction towards Estremadura. In the neighbourhood of Badajoz it turns to the S., and forms for some length the boundaries between Spain and Portugal. It indeed enters Portugal at one part of its course, but at Xeres de Guadiana is again adopted as the boundary line, and continues such till to its mouth at Ayamonte. It is navigable for about 45 miles from its mouth. It has 21 tributary rivers, among which are the Giguella, the Rubial, the Estena, the Burdalo, and the Montiel.—4*th.* The Guadalquivir is a beautiful stream, which has its source near the eastern boundaries of Jaen, on the Sierra de Cazorla. It runs first towards the N.; then S.W. and W., through Jaen, Cordova, and Seville; at Seville it becomes navigable, and it flows into the sea at St Lucar de Barrameda, after a course of 250 miles. In the neighbourhood of Mengibar this river is 203 varas above the level of the sea. Among its 28 subsidiary rivers are the Guadalimar, the Pandula, the Xenil, the Corbones, and the Guadaira.—5*th.* The Bidassoa, which forms the boundaries between France and Spain, has its sources in

	Varas.	English feet.
Mucla de Ares in Arragon, a truncated cone,	1,562	4,295
Village of Alcolia, D. of Soria, Iberian chain,	1,486	4,0·6
Montserrat, in Catalonia,	1,479	4,062
Puig Se Calm Rodos, Catalonia, Delambre,		4,041
Sierra de Molina, Iberian chain, Antillon,		3,837
Palace of San Ildefonso,	1,388	3,822
Silla de Espadana, Highlands of Valencia,	1,303	3,584
Avila, town of, on the banks of the Adaja, a branch of the Douro,	1,271	3,496
Bed of the Eresma, foot of the castle of Segovia,	1,107	3,045
Casulueta, in the Sierra de Espadana,	1,035½	2,850
Alcala de Real, between the Guadalquiver and the Genil,	1,023	2,812
City of Madrid, according to Antillon,		2,630
Do. Granada, foot of the Sierra Nevada,		2,465
Sierra de Pennagolosa, Iberian chain,	868	2,387
Almurdiel, Sierra Morena,	880	2,426
Pass of Puerto del Euj, road from Madrid to Andalusia,	821	2,258
Cerro de Xolucar,	960	2,880
Sierra de Guadaloupe, near Consuegra,	769	2,114

Navarre, and flows into the sea at Fuentarabia. It is considered a neutral stream by both countries. To these principal streams we may add, *6th.* the Oyarzou; *7th.* the Urumea; *8th.* the Oria; *9th.* the Urrola; *10th.* the Deva; *11th.* the Cadagun; *12th.* the Bilbao, which is navigable for a part of its course for small vessels; *13th.* the Orinnon; *14th.* the Mira; *15th.* the Suanes; *16th.* the Ulla; *17th.* the Umia; *18th.* the Caldelas—these three latter are coast-rivers of Galicia, which form at their mouths small bays and harbours called *rias*—*19th.* the Minho, which runs through Galicia in a S.W. direction, and from Melgaza to its mouth at La Guarda, forms the boundaries between Spain and Portugal; and *20th.* the Tinto, which runs in the Sierra Morena, and flows into the bay of Huelva after having received the Puerco. Its yellow copper-coloured waters, in which no animated being has yet been found, petrify wood and destroy every vegetable which they touch. Besides these rivers, 24 more flow into the Atlantic.

Among the rivers which flow into the Mediterranean are: *1st.* The Ebro, one of the principal Spanish rivers. It rises in the Reynosa de Toro, and runs in a S.E. direction; it becomes navigable at Logronno, but forms a waterfall at Xerta by which the navigation is interrupted. It falls into the Mediterranean at Amposta; but its mouth is very shallow and sandy, and a canal has been executed from Amposta into the Gulf of Alfaques, which is now the best harbour in Catalonia. Among its subsidiary rivers are the Ultron, the Omino, the Xalon, the Mataranna, the Nela, the Arragon, which gives its name to that kingdom, and the Segre. *2d.* The Guadarranque; *3d.* the Guadiaro; *4th.* the Segura, a very fine river which waters the beautiful Huertas of Murcia; *5th.* the Xucar, a large river, but not navigable, which rises at Cuenca on the Sierra de Molina; *6th.* the Guadalaviar; *7th.* the Palancia; *8th.* the Francoli; and *9th.* the Fluvia. Besides these, 11 other large rivers flow into the Mediterranean:

Canals.] It is only since the 18th century that navigable canals have been executed in Spain. But several small irrigatory canals, of very ancient date, exist in the provinces of Seville, Jaen, Cordova, Granada, Murcia, Valencia, and Catalonia; most of them are remnants of Moorish industry. Irrigation is of the highest importance in Spain, and has been carried to a great extent in Valencia, Catalonia, and Granada, where springs, streams, and rain-water are collected into enormous cisterns called *pantanos*, from which they are distributed over all the districts which need watering. There are only two navigable canals of importance. The Imperial canal—so called from having been begun by the emperor Charles V., though the work was interrupted for 200 years—is intended to unite Navarre with the Mediterranean. It begins at Navarre, and is finished till Saragossa. It is navigable for vessels of 100 tons, having 10½ feet depth of water, and being 74¾ feet broad. The canal of Castile, which is to unite the harbour of Santander with the Duero and the centre of the kingdom, is only in part executed. The part which is finished begins at Alar del Rey in Burgos, and receives its waters from the Pisuerga of which it follows the course. Near Palencia it receives the canal of Campos. There are some other canals of less importance which are not yet finished.

Lakes.] There are no lakes of any considerable size in Spain; but in the Pyrenees and other chains some small mountain-lakes occur. There are some very extensive swamps and morasses: as the Gallocante in

Arragon, the pestilential Nava in Palencia, and the Lagunes of Palomares and Caldera.

Mineral Springs.] Mineral springs are so numerous in Spain that we find their number stated by some native authorities at more than 1,200; but regular and comfortable watering and bathing establishments do not exist in this country; there is seldom sufficient accommodation for visitors, a regular physician is unknown, and an hospital is generally the only sanatory establishment in a Spanish watering-place. The mineral springs at Trillo in Guadalaxara are used for drinking and bathing. Those of Vierra Vermeja in Granada contain iron, vitriol, and sulphur; and those of Buzot in Valencia, sulphur, iron, and salt. The latter have a temperature of 32° R. The baths of Archena in Murcia, and Caldar de Monbuy, were known to the Romans.

Climate.] Spain, lying under the same parallel of latitude with Italy, has a climate extremely similar. In the northern parts the cold is never excessive; but the heat in the southern districts, during the three months nearest midsummer, is very great, and would be sometimes almost intolerable, were it not lessened by the sea-breeze, which begins to blow at nine in the morning, and lasts till five in the evening. The interior, being for the most part considerably elevated, is not so warm as might be expected from the latitude under which it is situated; and here the temperature is more regulated by the degree of elevation than the geographical position. It is the extraordinary configuration of this country which accounts for the aridity of the soil in the interior of the Castiles, the amount of evaporation, the want of rivers, and that difference of temperature which is observable between Madrid and Naples, two cities situated in the same latitude. The interior of Spain is an elevated central plain, the highest of any in Europe which occupy a large extent of country. Switzerland, though it presents the highest ground in Europe, is not really a raised plateau. The cantons of Berne, Friburg, Zurich, and all those countries covered with a new formation of freestone, are plains whose height is only from 240 to 260 toises above the level of the ocean. They form part of the grand longitudinal valley which extends from the S.W. to the N.E., between the chain of the Upper Alps and Mount Jura. In France, the highest plain is that of Auvergne, in which Mont D'Or Cantal and the Puy de Dome stand. It is 370 toises above the level of the sea. Lorraine forms a raised plain which extends between the Vosges and the chain of mountains which, passing by Epinal and Saint Mihel, joins the Ardennes. The elevation of this plain, however, is only from 130 to 140 fathoms. That of the department of Loir and Cher—the centre of the plains of France—is from 80 to 90 toises. Bavaria is the most extensive and the highest level land in Germany. There a vast plain, the bed of an ancient lake, extends from the granitic mountains of the Fichtel Gebirge to the foot of the Alps in the Tyrol. Its plains, like the small plain of Auvergne, are from 250 to 260 toises above the level of the ocean. But the interior of the two Castiles presents a raised plain which exceeds in height and extent any that we have mentioned. Its mean elevation appears to be 300 toises, or more than 1,900 feet.[3]

[3] The mean height of the barometer at Madrid, as observed by Don Felipe, shows that capital to be elevated $309\frac{3}{5}$ toises above the level of the ocean; and, according to M. de La Place it is 338 toises, 24 lines. Madrid, consequently, stands as high as the town of Inspruck, situated in one of the elevated defiles of the Tyrol. Its elevation is 2,150 English feet, or 15 times higher than Paris, and 3 times greater than that

The height of the plain of the Castiles has a great effect upon its temperature; we are here astonished at not finding oranges in the open air, in the latitude of 40°,—that of Tarentum, part of Calabria, Thessaly, and Asia Minor. The mean temperature of Madrid is 59° of Fahrenheit; while that of Genoa, 4 degrees more to the north, is 61°. Rome, which is 1° 29′ more northerly than Madrid, has almost the same mean temperature. While the mean temperature of the elevated plains of Spain is 59°, that of the coasts, from the 41° of latitude to the 36°, is between 63½ and 68°; and we see banana trees, peliconas, and sugar-canes, growing upon these coasts in situations that are sheltered from the cold winds. That the table-land is very high is further confirmed from Mr Semple's tour, who observes, that from Lisbon to Badajoz it is a continual and very fatiguing ascent. The city of Guarda, a frontier town of Portugal, which stands upon a plain on the Sierra de Estrella, near the sources of the Zezere and the Mondego is said to have a more elevated site than any city in Europe. The provinces along the Mediterranean are the paradise of this kingdom; an everlasting spring seems to exist in this delightful country, but it is sometimes visited by the dreadful *solano*, and in the hot season by myriads of insects. Two kinds of winds are very troublesome in Spain. The *gallego* is a N. and N. W. wind which comes down from Galicia, and is very piercing and cold; while the solano, like the *sirocco* of Italy, a S. W. wind blowing from Africa, is so hot as to relax the human system, and produce giddiness, inflammation, and even madness. While this pestilential wind is blowing, the air becomes stagnant, and loses its elasticity,—a pale blue colour covers the horizon,—the sun is hidden under a kind of glittering veil,—the sea lies in a dead calm,—the fishes swim exhausted on the surface—and even brute animals seem to suffer more than men. The yellow fever, which often ravages the southern provinces of Spain, has created much discussion among physicians to determine whether it is of an epidemic nature, or is brought to Spain by infection

Productions.] Under the mild sky of Spain every animal and vegetable production is rapidly matured by the ceaseless activity which Nature displays throughout the whole year. The fruits and plants of this country offer a greater variety, and are more luxuriant than those of any country of Europe. The principal production in the animal kingdom is the horse, which in Spain is a noble and beautiful animal; but it has degenerated in most of the provinces, and it is only in a few studs that the true Andalusian breed is still to be found. The Asturian horse is not so fine as that of Andalusia, but is stronger. Asses are very large here, and mules are held in higher estimation than horses. The cattle are small and not of a fine appearance. The strong bull of Andalusia lives wild in the Sierra Morena. The sheep of Spain are celebrated for the fineness of their fleece and for the delicacy of the mutton; there are three kinds: viz. *Merinos*, with a short soft wool; *Choùrros*, with higher legs, a smaller head, and coarser wool; and *Metis*, which are a race between the two former breeds.

of Mount Valerian. The level of the Seine at the Pont Royal, is 19 toises 5 feet above the surface of the sea. The gallery of the church of Mount Valerian is elevated 74 toises above the mean height of the Seine. Geneva is 188 toises above the level of the ocean. According to M. Thalacker, who measured several heights with the barometer in the environs of Madrid, the king's palace at St Ildefonso—a village situated in the neighbourhood of Segovia, and 35 miles to the N. W. of Madrid—is 593 toises, or 3,798 English feet of elevation; which is higher than the edge of the crater of Mount Vesuvius, in the vicinity of Naples.

Bears and wolves exist in the Pyrenees; monkeys on the rock of Gibraltar and on the Sierra de Ronda; there are also chameleons, lizards—among which is the Legartho, two feet in length—serpents, and vipers. We find here domestic and wild fowls of different kinds, larks of an extraordinary size, eagles, and the magnificent flamingo. There are not many varieties of fresh-water fish; but the seas are very rich in various kinds of excellent fish, oysters, mussels, and corals. Bees, silk-worms, cantharides or Spanish flies, tarantulas, locusts, and musquitoes, are numerous. The finest wines are those of Malaga, Tinto, Xeres, Alicante, and Valdepenas, which are celebrated throughout all Europe. A good many grapes are also exported in a fresh and a dried state. The fruits of the south are lemons, bitter and sweet oranges, pomegranates, figs, dates, olives, almonds, pistacchio-nuts, and capers; apples, pears, cherries, peaches, and chesnuts, are grown in the northern provinces. The quantity of hazel-nuts which are exported from Catalonia is remarkable; carubes are eaten and also made use of for feeding cattle. Vegetables of all kinds, asparagus, artichokes, onions, melons, potatoes, flax, hemp, cotton, madder, aloes, and liquorice, thrive well. On the Pyrenees, the Cantabrian mountains, the Sierra Nevada and the Sierra Morena, are fine forests; but there is a scarcity of wood on the table-land of the interior. There are 8 species of oak in Spain, among which are: the evergreen oak, or *quercus bellote*, with edible fruit; the cork-oak, or *quercus suber*; and the cochineal-oak, or *quercus coccifera*, on which the false cochineal which yields a fine crimson-colour is found. Among the other forest-trees of this country we may enumerate tamarisks, pines, beeches, chesnut-trees, nut-trees, firs, poplars, and the sumach or *rhus coriaria*, the bark of which is used by tanners.

Minerals.] Spain supplied the ancient inhabitants of Europe with the greater part of the precious metals which they possessed. The silver of Spain was not only abundant in quantity, but, in respect of quality, was preferred to that of all other regions. In the time of Hannibal, the mine called *Bebelo* is said to have yielded daily 300 lb. weight of this precious metal. The southern districts were celebrated as being the richest in the precious metals. Livy says, that in the course of a few years, Spain yielded the Romans 600,000 lb. weight of bullion; and that they procured 40,000 lb. of silver annually from the mine of Huesca in Arragon. Scipio Africanus, upon his return from Spain, carried with him 14,342 lb. of silver; L. Lentulus, 44,000 lb. of silver bullion, and 2,550 lb. of gold bullion; and L. Manlius 1,200 lb. of the same metal, and 30 lb. of gold. Cornelius Lentulus, who governed Hither Spain only two years, carried home 1,515 lb. of gold, and 2,000 lb. of silver, besides 34,550 denarii in ready coin; whilst his colleague, from Further Spain, brought away 50,000 lb. of silver. All these sums were raised in the course of only nine years. In a recent Madrid paper, there is a report on the silver-mines of Guadalcanal, in the province of Estremadura, the working of which lately commenced under the auspices of the king, after being closed, or rather abandoned, for a number of years. Some very rich specimens of silver, obtained at a trifling depth, had been presented to his majesty, which circumstance warrants the expectation that lower down a larger portion of mineral wealth will be obtained. A Spanish gentleman in Paris is known to have a sample of silver ore from this mine, weighing five or six pounds, and pronounced to be finer than any ever brought to Europe from Mexico. It will be a curious circumstance if the silver

mines in Spain, known as early as the days of the Carthagenians, and entirely neglected since the discovery and conquest of the New World, should again come into vogue and increase the revenue of the Spanish monarch. Mines of quick-silver are wrought in La Mancha, at a place called Almaden. Different parts of Spain afford cobalt, antimony, copper, tin, and lead. In Catalonia, coals are found; in the Asturias amber and jet; crystallized sulphur is found in the neighbourhood of Cadiz; and in Murcia, a kind of red earth called *almagra*, which is mixed with Spanish snuff. Spain contains no less than 177 species or kinds of marble.

CHAP. III.—AGRICULTURE AND INDUSTRY—MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Agriculture.] Spain has a very fertile soil, and might support three times its present population, and at the same time supply a considerable part of Europe with its superabundant products. Where water is not wanting, every thing prospers in the most luxurious manner; and there is not one province in Spain, notwithstanding its present desert appearance, which can be called sterile; even in those districts where rocks are heaped upon rocks there are small tracts of land particularly fit for cultivation, and it is these which are often the best cultivated. Catalonia, for example, is a mountainous region; but is well-cultivated by the inhabitants, who are much more industrious than those of any other part of Spain. In the rich provinces along the coasts of the Mediterranean, the industry of the Moors seems to have still left an impression on the character of their successors. But in the centre of the kingdom, where the lazy, phlegmatic Spaniard shuns every occupation which requires exertion, the most fertile districts are utterly neglected. This is particularly the case in both Castiles, Leon, and Estremadura,—almost one-half of the kingdom. The general state of agriculture may be said to be very indifferent, the management of the soil is little understood; and the prerogatives of landlords, and the unequal distribution of property, shackle industry.[4] It is said that a good harvest might provide Spain with sufficient corn for 18 months consumption; but such a harvest is never reaped, and the want of corn must be supplied by importations from Africa, Sicily, the Canary-islands, the coasts of the German Ocean, and North America. The provinces of the interior—which have always more corn than their consumption requires—might supply those of the coast; but the communication is so difficult from the want of good roads, and so many other obstacles to commercial intercourse exist on account of the bad administration, that it is

[4] The extraordinary number of holy-days observed in Spain, proves extremely injurious to the national industry and wealth. Though many of the holy-days have been abolished, as regards the restrictions from working, the people are still required to attend mass on these days, which must occasion much loss of time, especially to those who reside at a distance from a church. The diocese of Toledo still retains forty-one holy-days in the year, besides the Sabbath, on which it is unlawful to work. The days dedicated to the titular saints of particular parishes, the patron saints of private families, and the guardian saints of individuals, are so many other feasts on which labour is temporarily suspended. "The Count de Capomonez states the sum lost every holy-day or feast-day, by the suspension of labour, at six millions of reals, or four millions of livres, amounting to £166,666 13*s.* 4*d.* If it be admitted that labour in a national point of view constitutes wealth, what an immense loss does Spain annually sustain by the effects of a blind superstition! Allowing the number of feast-days retained to be forty-one in the year, the annual loss to the nation will amount to £6,833,333 6*s.* 8*d.*!!"

found cheaper and more easy to get the corn from abroad. The mode in which agriculture is carried on in Spain is totally different in the different provinces. There is more wheat grown than rye; and a great quantity of barley which serves for horses and cattle is raised. Oats are rare; but beans and peas—which are favourite dishes with the Spaniards—are grown in great quantity, as well as Indian corn. The harvest takes place in the north in July, and in the south so early as June. The corn is dried for several weeks in the fields, and then either thrashed by men, or trampled out by mules and asses on the spot. There are but few watermills; windmills are more numerous, but in many places handmills are still in use. The rearing of cattle is very much neglected, if we except that of sheep. Even the beautiful breed of horses is not attended to, and the Spaniards prefer mules, which are less expensive and more vigorous. There are only a few provinces in which cow-milk is used: the milk of the goat is generally substituted, and oil is used instead of butter. Sheep are kept in great numbers. The whole stock of sheep in the kingdom is said to amount to 13,000,000; among which are more than 5,000,000 of merinos. The exportation of wines is very considerable; about 140,000 cwt. of dry raisins are annually exported, besides great quantities of oranges, lemons, and figs, from Malaga, Cadiz, Alicante, and Palma. Excellent flax and hemp are grown, but not to a sufficient extent for home-consumption; the cotton-plant prospers particularly well in some of the dry districts. Saffron is used in many of the national dishes, and prospers extremely well on the Spanish soil; it might be exported in considerable quantity if the preparation was better understood. Soda is produced in great quantity, and is an article of considerable exportation; madder is also cultivated with great success, as well as different kinds of spices. The sugar-cane of Spain is as good as that of the West Indies, but it is cultivated at a much greater expense, and very little sugar is made of it for this reason. A considerable article of home-consumption as well as of exportation is oil, which is not so good, however, as the French and Italian. The climate is so favourable to the production of silk, that Spain might soon outstrip any country in Europe in this branch of industry, if it were carried on with more activity, and if the bad system of the government did not fetter the spirit of industry. The numerous aromatic plants, with which the table-land particularly of Spain is covered, offer every facility for the growing of the finest honey; but it is in the provinces on the coasts of the Mediterranean, that the greatest quantity is raised. The best honey is produced in Valencia; that of Biar was famous in the time of the Romans. The wax produced in the country is not nearly sufficient for the enormous consumption in the churches, and Spain is obliged to import several thousand cwts. every year. Fishing is prosecuted on the coasts of both seas, but the numerous fast-days observed in Spain create a greater demand for fish than the country itself can supply. The principal fishes caught are sardines, anchovies, and thun-fish. There are about 1,000 salt-springs in Spain. The most valuable are those where the salt is crystallized by the heat of the sun, as is the case in the Lagunes of Mala, Torrevieja, and Manuel in Valencia, which produce about 300,000 cwt. per annum; and the bays in Seville and Iviza where about 4,650,000 cwt. of sea-salt are annually made. Of mineral-salt there is a whole mountain at Cardona in Catalonia, and inexhaustible mines in Cuenca, Valencia, and Navarre, of which, however, only a few are worked. Spain may be said to produce about 5 million cwt. of salt per annum.

Manufactures.] The Spaniards are not wanting in skill for the useful arts: but they dislike to devote themselves to any kind of trade, which they think beneath their dignity, and a Spanish hidalgo would much rather beg his bread than procure it by devoting himself to any useful labour. The inhabitants of Catalonia, Valencia, and Galicia, alone are distinguished from the rest of their countrymen by activity and industry. Still there might be enough of tradesmen to supply the home-consumption, but their work is so ill-done and dear, that all finer articles are imported from Great Britain and France. The manufactures of Spain have been ruined by war; many have been entirely annihilated, and others are in a very languid state, as their produce was especially calculated for the colonies, of which the market is now closed to Spain. Most of the manufactures in Spain have been established by joint-stock companies, which shows how poor individuals are in a kingdom which so long enjoyed the exclusive possession of the New world. The principal manufactories of silk—which only employ 18,000 looms—are at Barcelona, Valencia, Seville, and Madrid. Spain is in possession of the finest wool in Europe, and its woollen manufactures ought to be the finest in the world; but this is so little the case that they are in the deepest decay, and their productions too dear to bear competition with foreign articles. In linen Spain does not supply one-sixth of its own consumption; and the cotton-manufactures—which are of quite recent date, and never furnished above one-sixteenth of the home-consumption—have been almost entirely ruined during the last war. Spain was once famous for its tanneries; and Cordova has given its name to a particular kind of leather called *corduan*, or cordovan, which was invented by the Moors. There are still leather-manufactories in almost all the provinces of Spain, but the articles made in them are very indifferent. The Spanish paper is good. Hats are made in Badajoz, but a great many are imported from England, France, and Germany. The excellent Spanish iron loses its value in the Spanish manufactures, and is consequently for the most part imported raw. Of tobacco, in the whole of Spain there is only one manufacture, which is at Seville, and the property of the crown. It is of great extent, and, besides an enormous quantity of cigars, it furnishes 15,000 cwt. of Brazilian snuff, and 16,000 of Spanish per annum. Spanish soap is excellent, and is partly exported. Several extensive manufactories of chocolate exist, which is also extensively fabricated by itinerant merchants. Cyder is prepared in the Baskish provinces, and vinegar in Catalonia, Arragon, and Navarre. Few countries in Europe are so rich in saltpetre as Spain, where the soil of whole districts is impregnated with this mineral, which is exported in great quantities. The Spanish gunpowder is excellent, and mostly fabricated in Valencia, Granada, Mancha, and Navarre. The royal manufacture of mirrors at San Ildefonso furnishes excellent articles, but it is the only one in the kingdom, and its articles are too dear. Earthen-ware is made in considerable quantity.

Commerce.] No country in Europe equals Spain in natural commercial advantages, whether we consider its situation or facilities of produce. Its situation renders an intercourse with all parts of Europe extremely easy, and its intercourse with America and Africa is carried on by a shorter and more direct course than that of any other nation. Its ports are numerous and commodious; and its inhabitants, accustomed to a warm climate, visit the tropical regions with more safety than the inhabitants of colder climates. The produce of Spain consists of all the necessaries, and many of the

conveniences of life,—articles which always command a ready market, and are a never-failing source of wealth to the nation which furnishes them in any quantity.

A country possessing so many natural advantages might be expected to be at present, what it once was, the most wealthy and powerful of European countries; but the discovery of America ultimately proved the ruin of Spain. Immense quantities of the precious metals were brought from the New World; and it was foolishly imagined, that if, by any means, a great proportion of these could be kept within the kingdom, Spain would become the most wealthy of all nations.[5] Heavy duties were accordingly laid upon the exportation of the precious metals, which were thus necessarily for a time rendered more plentiful in Spain than in other countries; but this no less necessarily operated as a kind of bounty to the manufactures and industry of rival nations, and the manufactures of Spain began immediately to decline, and have never yet evinced any tendency to a revival. The abundance of the precious metals, though perhaps the chief, was not the only cause of the decline of Spanish manufactures: the royal monopolies likewise operated as an effectual check to all industry. Of these monopolies Townshend gives the following list: Broad cloth, at Guadalajara and Brihuega; china, at the palace of the Buen Retiro; cards, at Madrid and Malaga; glass, at St Ildefonso; paper, at Segovia; pottery, at Talavera; saltpetre, at Madrid and various other places; stockings, at Valdemoro; swords, at Toledo; tapestry, at Madrid; and tissues, at Talavera. Besides these articles, the king has a monopoly of brandy, gun-powder, lead, quicksilver, sealing-wax, salt, sulphur, and tobacco. The effects of monopolies are too well-known to require any explanation. But, as if it were the wish of the Spanish government to extinguish every thing that resembled industry and commerce, a tax has long existed, which is denominated the *alcavala*, and is a duty of so much per cent. on the sale of every article. This has been founded on the supposition, that not only the first seller, but every subsequent seller must have his profit, and that a part of every man's profit ought reasonably to be dedicated to the use of government. This tax is liable to many inconveniences, and prevents the free circulation of goods, as no man will sell, but at such a profit as may pay the duty and leave something to himself.

The greatest part of the commerce of Spain was carried on with her American colonies previous to their revolt, and might have been a source of much wealth, had not government, claiming the full possession of all the colonies, restricted the commerce in such a way as was judged most likely to fill the royal coffers.[5]

[5] The following account of the exports to America, and the imports from that country, in 1784, is afforded by Townshend:—

EXPORTS TO AMERICA.

	Spanish prod.	Foreign prod.	Total prod.
Cadiz,	£1,438,912	£2,182,531	£3,621,443
Malaga,	196,379	14,301	210,680
Seville,	62,713	30,543	93,256
Barcelona,	122,631	21,240	183.871
Corunna,	64,575	39,962	104,537
Santander,	36,715	90,173	126,888
Tortosa,	7,769	289	7,958
Canaries,	24,974		24,974
Gijon,	4,281	10,190	14,471
	£1,958,849	£2,389,229	£4,348,078

The duty upon these exports is computed to have amounted to £170,800.

The present commerce by land, in the interior of the country, is very insignificant, and only carried on with some animation between Madrid, Bilboa, Barcelona, and Cadiz. The kingdom has few natural or artificial water-communications, and the roads are so bad that carts and mules can scarcely travel on them. The post is also very ill-organized; and the whole system of taxation and customs is regulated in a manner which of itself would be sufficient to check all commercial intercourse whatever. In this state of things, even the exchange of productions between one province and the other is rendered so difficult, that the greatest scarcity may exist in one whilst the other is overflowing with abundance. The exterior commerce by land with France is much impeded by the intervention of the Pyrenees. The foreign commerce is not carried on by the Spanish themselves; British, French, Dutch, and German vessels import the merchandise of foreign countries, and take back the exports of Spain, and in almost all commercial towns foreign merchants are established who carry on the trade of the kingdom.[6]

Monies, Weights, and Measures.] Accounts are kept at Madrid in reales de vellon, and reales de plata. A maravedie de plata is equal in value to $\frac{45}{272}$ of a penny British currency; a maravedie de vellon is of only half that value. A real de plata is equal to about 5½d, and a pistole to 16*s*. 9*d*. British currency. There are 8 different valuations of money in Spain. Oil is sold by the arroba mina, weighing 25lbs. of Castile; 100 of these arrobas are equal to 335 English wine-gallons. Four arrobas of Madrid are equal to one quintal, or 102 English pounds. One hundred Spanish varas or yards are equal to 92.5 English yards; and a Spanish legua contains 5,000 varas, or the 26.60th part of a degree of the equator.

CHAP. IV.—POPULATION—MANNERS AND CUSTOMS—RELIGION —LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

Population.] The population of Spain, according to the census of 1788, amounted only to 10,500,000 persons;[7] which, on a surface of

The imports from America to Spain, during the same year, were as follows:

	In money and jewels.	In merchandise.
Cadiz, ...	£8,297,164	£2,990,757
Malaga, ...		18,605
Barcelona, ...	102,140	91,233
Corunna.	741,283	90,001
Santander, ...	40,843	100,974
Canaries, ...	109,807	52,366
.	£9,291,257	£3,343,936
		9,291,237
Total of imports, . .		£12,635,173

The duties upon these imports were upwards of £500,000.

[6] Humboldt calculates the total amount of money which has flowed into Europe from Spanish and Portuguese America, since the discovery of that country till the year 1803, at the enormous sum of 5,420 millions of piastres, or £1,138,200,000. Nevertheless the stock of money in Spain in 1782, according to M. Mosquiz, the minister of finance, cited in the work of M. Bourgoigne, amounted only to 80 millions of piastres, or £14,333,333, and many circumstances conspire to convince us that it has very considerably decreased since.

[7] The numbers of the different ranks were stated by Townshend in 1787 to be as follows:

Clergy of all kinds, including 61,617 monks, and 32,500 nuns,	188,625
Men Servants—*Criados*, ...	280,092
Day-labourers—*Jornaleros*, ...	964,571

183,684 English square miles, gave only $57\frac{1}{3}$ persons to each square mile. Antillon and Rehfues calculated the population in 1808 at 12,000,000; but Hassel's approximative calculation fixed it at only 10,500,000 in 1820. Balbi in 1826 estimated the population at 13,900,000. We have adopted Cortambeir's calculation in 1826 as seeming to us nearer the truth. The latter geographer estimates the population of Spain at only 11,325,600, or about $61\frac{3}{4}$ to the British square mile. The thinness of the Spanish population has been attributed to various circumstances; the chief of which seem to be the desolating wars which during a long period were carried on against the Moorish inhabitants; their ultimate and entire expulsion, together with that of the Jews; the emigrations to the American colonies; and finally, the Peninsular war, and the mal-administration of Ferdinand. The contagious distempers which often prevail in the southern provinces have also been considered as a cause of the thinness of the population. The fact is, a nation void of industry can never be populous. There are 144 *ciudades* or cities in Spain; 4,351 towns or boroughs; 12,549 villages, and 18,871 parishes. In some provinces the population reside only in *ciudas* or towns, there being almost no villages; in others they are dispersed in isolated houses and farms. In 1787 there were no less than 1,511 ruined or deserted places in Spain. The nation consists of four different races: viz. 1*st. Spaniards*, who form the majority of the population. Celtic, Roman, Gothic, Vandal and Arab blood unite in the Spaniard. In the north Gothic, and in the south Arabian blood seems to predominate; and the Asturians and Castilians consider themselves more noble than the inhabitants of Andalusia where the Moors remained longer. On the whole, the Spaniards are a vigorous and high-spirited race of men. The males are in general tall and thin; their limbs well-proportioned; their hair black; their eyes full of fire, and overshadowed by thick dark eye-brows; their features sharp; their gestures measured and solemn; and their colour a dark yellow. The women are of low stature, but well-formed, with glowing eyes, dark hair, and a yellow complexion. The Spaniard is bold and determined; he is proud of his origin, his country, and his religion; but he is indolent from ignorance, and selfish in the extreme. They are much attached to the manners and customs of their forefathers; their bull-fights, their dances and games, as well as their dress, the *Capa* and *the Redezillas* of the men, and the *Mantilla* and the *Basquina* of the women, are truly national. The principal defects in the Spanish character are jealousy, rashness of temper, avidity, inactivity, and indolence. Obstinacy is one of the chief defects of the Spanish character: indeed, so obstinate is the Spaniard, and, in some provinces in particular, so remarkably self-willed, that the inhabitants of one part of Spain make a jest of the others on this account. Thus, the obstinate Biscayan is represented as driving a nail into the wall with his head, whilst the still more obstinate Arragonian is figured in the same act and attitude, but with the point of the nail turned outward! The small tribes which live in the provinces of the centre, as the Batueses, the Vaqueros, the Maragates, and Patones, are true descendants of the Goths, and have remained more faithful to their ancient manners and customs than the other inhabitants of Spain. The language of the

Peasants—*Labradores*,	917,197
Artisans,	270,989
Manufacturers,	39,750
Merchants,	34,339
Knights—*Hidalgos*,	480,589

Spaniards has almost as many different dialects as there are provinces, the rudest is that of Catalonia and the Baleares; the purest and softest that of Castile. The latter is also the written language, and that of official business, and is in general spoken by the well-educated classes. *2d.* The *Basks* or *Basques*, the descendants of the ancient Cantabrians, about 490,000 in number, live in the Baskish provinces and in Navarre. They have preserved their ancient manners and liberty; and are distinguished by an open and cheerful character, full of honesty, good nature, love of freedom and patriotism. They are a gallant and laborious, but also rude and obstinate race; less grave than the Castilian, but also less to be depended upon. They are addicted to games which require bodily strength, and have a national dance, the *Zorticos*, and a peculiar kind of bull-fight called *Novillas*. Their women are fresher-looking than the Spanish, and are equal to the men in cheerfulness and industry. *3d.* The descendants of the Moors are chiefly found in the Alpujarras, where many of them have remained faithful to the customs of their fathers, though apparently *Modejares*, or Christians. *4th.* There are about 40,000 or 50,000 Gypsies dispersed throughout the whole of Spain. They speak a gibberish-dialect intelligible only to themselves, and are called *Gitanas*.

Manners and Customs.] The Spaniards, like the Italians, have been celebrated for their abstemiousness with regard to meat and drink. Perhaps this virtue in both is more imaginary than real; and where real is perhaps more the consequence of necessity than choice. The breakfast is said to be generally chocolate; the dinner beef, veal, and pork, but above all mutton dressed in various ways. This must be understood of the higher ranks; the diet of the lower classes is extremely meagre, consisting chiefly of vegetables, such as radishes, garlic, onions. Wine is said to be used only in small quantities,—a circumstance which has been attributed to the heat of the climate, the extreme poverty of the inhabitants is a cause no less probable. To sleep after dinner is customary with both sexes of almost every rank. The time of taking air is in the evening; the heat of mid-day being so intense as almost to preclude every species of exercise.

The theatre is said to be little frequented. The reason which has been generally assigned, is the insipidity of the greater part of the dramatic pieces; but this reason is by no means satisfactory. All excellence is comparative; and the Spaniard, who has no just standard by which to judge of the dramas of his country, will no doubt consider them as excellent, and consequently admire them in the representation. That the Spaniards are not deficient in wit and humour is evident from the works of several of their writers well-known in every nation of Europe. The comic scenes in many of the chapters of Don Quixote are exquisite. Dancing is a favourite amusement; but one, it must be owned, somewhat incompatible with the alleged gravity of the nation. The chief national dances are the *Fandango* and the *Bollero*.

Bull-Fights.] A species of amusement, almost peculiar to Spain and Portugal, but which reflects little honour on either nation, is that of bull-fighting. This exercise formerly was highly dangerous, but is now so conducted that the danger is more imaginary than real. From a small hut, at the side of an area enclosed for the purpose, the bull issues at an appointed signal. He is first approached by the *picadores* or equestrian combatants, who, dressed in the ancient Spanish manner, and armed with lances, advance against him and pierce him in different places The furious animal, not-

withstanding the dexterity of the picadores, often wounds the horses and sometimes overturns both horse and rider. In this case, the danger is quickly averted by assistants on foot, who engage the animal's attention by waving about bundles of rags of different colours, till the picadore is remounted, and returns to the charge. When the equestrian combatants have satisfied the dictates of their own courage, they leave the bull to the *vanderilleros* or pedestrian combatants. These approach the animal with caution; avoid all his attacks with agility and address; and leave fixed in his neck a number of small darts having streamers of variegated paper at the end. At length the pedestrian combatants give place to the *matador*, who advances single for the purpose of despatching the animal. The bull has now been greatly exhausted by the loss of blood, and by his exertions against his various assailants; but his ferocity is, if possible, increased. The matador, with a kind of flag in one hand, and a large dart in the other, approaches his antagonist, carefully watching every motion, and seizing a proper opportunity aims at him a mortal blow which generally brings the enfeebled bull to the ground at once. If he fail, in his ardour to retrieve his reputation, he often exposes himself to dangers apparently more real than any of those incurred by the former combatants, and sometimes he is hurt; but the bull is always overcome, the second stroke seldom failing to bring him to the ground. It has been supposed that these combats were introduced by the Moors when they possessed great part of Spain. It might with equal plausibility be argued, that the Moors, if ever they practised them, borrowed them from the Spaniards. They seem, indeed, to have originated among the Romans, and to be a remnant of their celebrated gladiatorial scenes.[b] The Spanish court, in former times, patron-

[b] That they were common in Italy, at an early period, is evident from a passage of Muratori, describing a combat in 1332, thus extracted by Gibbon:—"A general proclamation, as far as Rimini and Ravenna, invited the nobles to exercise their skill and courage in this perilous adventure. The Roman ladies were marshalled in three squadrons, and seated in three balconies, which on this day, the third of September, were lined with scarlet cloth. The fair Jacova di Rovere, led the matrons from beyond the Tiber, a pure and native race, who still represent the features and character of antiquity. The remainder of the city was divided between the Colonna and Ursini families: the two factions were proud of the number and beauty of their female bands: the charms of Savella Ursini are mentioned with praise; and the Colonna regretted the absence of the youngest of their house, who had sprained her ankle in the garden of Nero's tower. The lots of the champions were drawn by an old and respectable citizen; and they descended into the *arena*, or pit, to encounter the wild bulls, on foot, as it should seem with a single spear. Amidst the crowd, our annalist selected the names, colours, and devices, of twenty of the most conspicuous knights. Several of the names are the most illustrious of Rome and the ecclesiastical state; Malatesta, Polenta, della Valle, Cafurello, Savelli, Capoccio, Conti, Annibaldi, Attieri, Corsi. The colours were adapted to their taste and situation. The devices are expressive of hope or despair, and breathe the spirit of gallantry and arms. 'I am alone, like the youngest of the Knattii,' the confidence of an intrepid stranger; 'I live disconsolate,' a weeping widower; 'I burn under ashes,' a discreet lover; 'I adore Lavinia or Lucretia,' the ambiguous declaration of a modern passion; 'My faith is as pure,' the motto of a white livery; 'Who is stronger than myself?' of a lion's hide; 'If I am drowned in blood, what a pleasant death!' the wish of ferocious courage. The pride or prudence of the Ursini restrained them from the field, which was occupied by three of their hereditary rivals, whose inscriptions denoted the lofty greatness of the Colonna name: 'Though sad, I am strong:' 'Strong as I am great.' 'If I fall—addressing himself to the spectators—you fall with me:'—intimating (says the writer) that while the other families were the subjects of the Vatican, they alone were the supporters of the capitol. The combats of the amphitheatre were dangerous and bloody. Every champion successively encountered a wild bull, and the victory may be ascribed to the quadrupeds, since no more than eleven were left on the field, with the loss of nine wounded and eighteen killed on the side of their adversaries. Some of the noblest families might mourn; but the pomp of the funerals, in the churches of St John Lateran, and St Maria Maggiore, afforded a second holiday to the people." These combats seem to have been real; the modern Spaniards have contrived to render them only spectacles.

ized these combats, and caused them, on particular occasions, to be celebrated with great magnificence. They are now as much as possible discouraged, but totally to abrogate them would be a dangerous undertaking. The people are greatly attached to them, and would not quietly submit to be deprived of their ancient and favourite entertainment. The surest way of abrogating bull-fights is to humanize the Spaniards.

Religion.] The religion of Spain is the Roman Catholic. Of all Roman Catholics, the Spaniards are the most bigoted; and therefore, it may safely be inferred, the most ignorant. In no country are the clergy richer or more rapacious; and it has been remarked that, by a singular inconsistency, the mendicants who profess poverty are, if possible, more rapacious than any of the other orders. The king has not only the nomination of archbishops, bishops, and higher dignitaries, but has, since 1753, appointed to the smaller benefices also. The clergy were formerly exempt from all taxes, but the king has now power to tax them with his other subjects. The Spanish clergy are remarkably ignorant and dissolute in their morals; instead, therefore, of improving the minds of the people, they contribute much to disseminate ignorance and vice among all ranks. The number of archbishoprics in Spain is 8. The number of the bishoprics is 51. The archbishop of Toledo is primate of Spain, chancellor of Castile, and, in virtue of his office, a privy counsellor. His revenue, according to the most moderate calculation, is £90,000 annually; other calculations make it £100,000. The ecclesiastics of all classes, including monks and nuns, amounted in 1787, according to Townshend, to 188,625.

Language.] The most ancient language in Spain was probably that of the Cantabrians, of which remnants exist in the peculiar dialect of the inhabitants of the neighbourhood of the Pyrenees, called the Baskish language. This language of the Cantabrians, probably mixed with Phenician and Carthaginian expression and forms, was superseded by that of the Romans during their dominion in Spain, and one of the most celebrated Roman teachers of eloquence, Quintilian, was a Spaniard by birth. During the reign of the Westro-Goths in Spain, a kind of *Lingua Romana*—which, like that of all other countries, was a mixture of the Latin and German tongues, but which did not supersede the Latin—was spoken in this country. When the greatest part of Spain had been conquered by the Moors, the Arabian language—already highly-cultivated and well-adapted to poetry—was soon introduced among the people, and in a short time spoken with facility. A party of Westro-Gothic Spaniards retired into the mountains, as mentioned in our historical sketch, and by them several small kingdoms were gradually formed, among which Castile soon obtained a pre-eminence even above Arragon, with which it was afterwards united by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella. The division of Spain into so many small kingdoms naturally affected the *Lingua Romana*, which had been preserved by those Spaniards who had resisted the yoke of the Moors, and was now split into as many dialects as there were kingdoms. Among these dialects, that of Castile gradually became the classic language of Spain. Its basis is Latin. The proportion of Teutonic words greatly exceeds those of Moorish extraction; the Arabic holds only a third place. Force of expression and depth of sound are characteristic features of the Spanish language. The abundance of pure and full vowels gives a beautiful harmony to it, and a rich romantic country has furnished it with an abundance of fine images: so that the

whole language may be considered as highly poetical, and Spanish poetry is in fact the germ of Spanish literature.

Literature.] The poetry of the Troubadours early penetrated into Spain; but the true rise of Spanish national poetry must be placed in the midst of the 14th century. A noble independence of thought, and great dignity and calmness of expression are characteristic features of the early Spanish poetry. In the middle ages, amid the struggles in which Spain was involved, its poetry degenerated into ballads and songs. Among the most remarkable of these national ballads, were those celebrating the glory of the gallant hero, Rodrigo Diaz de Vivar, called *El Campeador,* (the combatant) or the *Cid.* The contents of these ballads have been preserved in a poem, entitled, *El poema de Cid;* which belongs most probably to the 12th century. Of the ballads on the Cid, there may perhaps be still about one hundred existing. A very great number of Spanish ballads and songs have been collected; one of the oldest collections is the *Concionero de Romances, Anveres* 1555. Science and poetry were at one time so closely united in Spain with real life, that its greatest heroes were also generally the best scholars, and often the finest poets. By the conquest of Naples, Spanish literature, coming in contact with the Italian and classical spirit, began to purify, and was particularly promoted by Boscan about 1526. His friend Garcilazo de la Vega, was still more celebrated, also, Diego de Mendoza, Charles the Fifth's dreaded viceroy of Italy, the author of the comic novel, *Lazarillo de Tormes,* so celebrated in Spain. In epic poetry the Spanish have not succeeded so well, if we except the *Araucana,* by Alonzo de Ercilla y Zuniga, which relates the conquest of a gallant American tribe. But the finest flowers of Spanish poetry are to be found in their dramas. The Spanish drama, like that of many other nations, begins with sacred and religious representations. The Spaniards have not adopted the ordinary Grecian division into comedy and tragedy; but employ a quite peculiar one, viz: into *Comedias divinas y humanas.* The first have been divided into *Vidas de Santos,* or 'Legends of Saints,' and *Centos Sacramentales,* which were performed on one of the great catholic feasts, the Corpus Christi day. The second were divided into three classes, viz: 1*st.* The heroical or historical; 2*d.* The *comedias de capa y espadæ,* or 'comedies of the mouth and the sword,' turning upon intrigues in high life; and 3*d. Comedias de figuron,* in which, adventurers, pickpockets, and ladies, perform the principal parts. Torres Naharro of the 16th century, may be considered as the founder of the Spanish drama; he was succeeded by Lope de Ruega, who was also an actor. But the Spanish theatre was in a very rude state in his time; consisting mostly of some planks, a few benches, and a meagre wardrobe, which, with the whole scenery, could easily be packed up into a large bag. The celebrated Lope de Vega, born in 1562, attempted all kinds of Spanish dramas with great success. His most celebrated plays, without counting smaller interludes, form a collection of 25 volumes. His spirit of invention seems to have been inexhaustible; but he wants polish, which indeed, we could scarcely expect to find conjoined with such an astonishing fertility of imagination. He was succeeded by a host of imitators, all of whom were eclipsed by the immortal Don Pedro Calderon de la Barca, born in 1600, who raised the Spanish theatre to its highest glory. His genius also was very fertile, for 127 dramas are ascribed to him, besides innumerable smaller pieces. The great Cervantes tried his genius in dramatic poetry, and his *Numantia* is a most wonderful production. With the French rulers,

French taste was introduced into the country; Ignaz de Luna was the founder of the French school; and it was only in the latter part of the 18th century, that Garcia de la Huerto attempted the restoration of the national Spanish drama. The political convulsions under which this unhappy country has so long laboured, have naturally stifled all poetical talent. In novels the Spanish literature is very rich, particularly in those of chivalry. The Lazarillo de Tormes of Diego de Mendoza, introduced comic novels into fashion; and the inimitable Miguel de Cervantes, born in 1547, shines like a brilliant star among a crowd of novel writers of this class. His Don Quixote, which has been translated into all languages, and even in the very worst translation, still presents an inexhaustible fountain of amusement. It is, besides, the sparkling wit with which every page glitters, full of the soundest philosophy, and one of the most perfect and most faithful pictures of human life. We have already mentioned the commencement of the decay of Spanish literature. The witty, but eccentric Louis de Gongora de Argote, carried bombast to its highest pitch about the year 1600, and found plenty of followers. In the 18th century, Candarus, Zantora, and Canizares, endeavoured to revive a better taste in the drama, and the Mexican Nun, Inez de la Crux, and some others, were distinguished in lyric poetry, but nothing has appeared in recent times which could be compared to the producions of the golden age of Spanish poetry. Among the modern and living poets are Griarte, Arrayal, Suan, Melendez, Valdes, Norona, Cadalso, Moratin, and Comella. In prose writings, with the exception of novels, the Spanish literature is much less distinguished than in poetry. In ancient times Spain had some distinguished theological writers and commentators on the Bible: as Alfonso Tostado, Nebuja, Luis Vives, Fern. Nunez, and Alfonso de Alcala, who, in 1517, finished the Polyglotta.[6] But the study of divinity has been completely checked, and philosophy is in a still worse state. However, some popular philosophical writers have been distinguished, among whom we may name Fernan, Perez de Oliva, Ambrosio de Morales, Lorenzo Gracian, among the ancients; and Antonio de Ulloa, and Campomanes, among the moderns. Spanish lawyers were once held in reputation in Europe; Antonio and Diego Gomez, Suarez, Morzilla, Mariana, and Pereira, are celebrated among the ancient Spanish writers on jurisprudence, and Greg. Mayans, among the modern; nevertheless, this science is in a sad state at this moment, and the manner of administering justice faulty in the extreme. In medicine and surgery the Spaniards are sadly behind the other nations of Europe: though in former times Francisco Vales, Hernandez and Herrera, and still earlier the Arabian physicians, had a brilliant reputation. Natural philosophy, chemistry, and mathematics, are yet in their childhood in Spain; but among the Spanish mathematicians D. Ant. Ulloa has acquired some reputation. History was early written in Spain; and in the 16th century some historical works of high merit appeared; but this branch of literature could not flourish under the shackles

[6] The manuscripts used in this Polyglott were all deposited in the university library of Alcala. Professor Moldenhawer, a German, went to Alcala in 1784, in order to inspect these manuscripts. Not being able to find them, he suspected that they were designedly secreted from him. But at last he discovered, that a very illiterate librarian, about 1749, who wanted room for some new books, sold all the ancient vellum manuscripts to one Torijo, who dealt in fire-works, as materials for making rockets. Amongst these manuscripts were seven Hebrew ones of great antiquity. What would be said of the librarians of the Oxford and Cambridge, and Edinburgh and Glasgow universities, and Advocates' libraries, were they to dispose of the manuscripts under their charge as did the librarian of Alcala.

of the Inquisition, and the most absurd of censorships. Among Spanish historians we remark Las Casas, Ambrosio de Morales, the historiographer of Philip II., and Diego de Mendoza, whose history of Granada is written in a highly-cultivated language. Ant. de Solis wrote in the 17th century a beautiful history of the conquest of Mexico; but the most laborious Spanish historian is perhaps the Jesuit Mariana, who died in 1623 in his 90th year. Classic literature is cultivated, but without taste or critical spirit. Latin is held in great estimation, and something has been done for the national language; but the dictionary of the Academy is very incomplete. There was a time when geography and statistics were highly cultivated in Spain. The most ancient geography of Spain was written by Al Rasis, an Arabian, who flourished in the ninth century.[7] In modern times Gomez, Espinalt y Garcia, Cavanilles, Alcedo, Azara, and Antillon have distinguished themselves in this department. There are very good maps by Lopez, and excellent sea-charts by Tofino; and in the science of navigation very good works have been written by Ciscar, Clavijo, and Solano. The agricultural and patriotical societies which have been formed in recent times in Spain have done much for the advancement of the useful arts, and numerous works on these subjects have appeared. Botany has always been a favourite study in Spain, and in almost all large towns there are botanical gardens. Among Spanish authors who have enriched the science of botany, are Cavanilles, Ortega, Palau, Molina, and Pavon. The Arabs who, during the period of their dominion in Spain, contributed so much to advance the arts and sciences, were particularly skilled in architecture; and in the town of Granada, the capital of their last magnificent kingdom, the splendid

[7] In the period of the Moorish domination the caliphs of Cordova had a library of 600,000 volumes, 44 of which were employed in the mere catalogue. More than 300 Arabian writers successively appeared in Cordova and Almeria, and Murcia, and above 70 public libraries were opened in the cities of the Andalusian kingdom. This state of learning lasted 500 years in that now benighted region, and was coeval with the darkest and most slothful period of European ignorance. Ten years after the conquest of Spain, a map of it was presented to the caliph of Damascus, in which were represented the seas, the rivers, the harbours, the inhabitants and cities, and mineral productions. Not less than 1,851 Arabian manuscripts in the library of the Escurial, have been classified by Casiri in his Bibliotheca of Spanish Arabian literature, in 2 vols. fol. 1760–1770, and yet previous to that period, the greatest part of that library, rich in the spoils of Granada, had been consumed by fire in 1671. Amongst these is a copious treatise of husbandry, by an Arabian of Seville, in the 12th century, still existing, and which Casiri had intended once to publish. But an Arabian manuscript history of the kingdom of Granada, by Ebn Khatib, a native Granadian, who died in 1374, has been published by Casiri, along with a biographical account of Spain, by an Arabian of Valencia. The History of Granada occupies 142 folio printed pages, and that of the caliphs of Cordova 177 pages, by Ben Hazel, of Granada. Amongst these also, is a poem on Tarik, the Arabian warrior who vanquished Roderic, the last of the Gothic kings, in the battle of Xeres, written by the Arabian visir of Abdalrahman I. and a manuscript account of Musa, the successor of Tarik, who finished the conquest of Spain, written by his grandson, both of them manuscripts of the 8th century. Al Beithari of Malaga, was an eminent botanist, who traversed Africa, Persia, and India, in search of plants. Ebn Ahmod, cadi of Toledo, who died in 1,169, furnished Abulfaraje with the major part of his literary anecdotes, and our learned orientalist, Pococke, with the text of his ancient Arabian history. It was in these days of Arabian glory that these eminent masters in Jewish and Hebrew learning, Solomon Jarchi, Aben Ezra, Abravanell, Maimonides, and David Kimchi, all of them Spanish Jews, flourished. It was not till more than 500 years after the Moorish conquest, that the Christian Spaniards produced either a poet or a historian, and he a mere Monkish chronicler, Roderic of Toledo by name. Besides these above mentioned, there is a complete Arabian history in manuscript, of the conquest, topography, literature, and eminent personages of Andalusia or Spain, in the time of the Arabs, in 3 large volumes, by Ahmed al Monkeri, a native of Andalusia. This manuscript belonged to our countryman Bruce, the Abyssinian traveller

palace of the Alhambra is still a glorious monument of Moorish architectural skill. The Gothic architecture was naturally intermixed in Spain with that of the Moors, which gives to it in this country a distinctive character. Berrugete brought Grecian architecture from Rome to Spain. The Escurial was built by Juan Bapt. de Toledo and Juan Herrera; the dome at Granada by Covarrubias; but most of the modern buildings have been constructed by Italian and French architects. Among the Spanish sculptors we distinguish Alonzo Berrugete, Gregorio Hernandez, and Juan Martinez Montanes. The greatest Spanish painters are Diego Velasquez de Siloa, Jos. de Ribera called Spagnoletto, Espinosa, Murtillo, Herrera, Luis de Vargas Morales called el Divino, Navariete, Pablo de Lespedez, Guevara, and Gallegos. Music must be natural to so poetical a people as the Spanish, and every herdsman can perform on some instrument. It is almost unnecessary to remark that in the present state of Spain no encouragement whatever is given to the arts and sciences. The number of new works is very small, and the book-trade is shackled by an absurd censorship and prohibitive laws. During the brief existence of the Constitution, the stirring spirit awakened by the breath of liberty produced many new works which contributed to diffuse some new and liberal ideas; but this of course has been again checked. Most literary works have been produced by the different literary societies for which Spaniards have always shown a peculiar fondness, as if here the spirit of corporation and association ruled even in scientific and literary pursuits. The price of books is high. There are few periodicals except the memoirs published by the different literary societies, and none has had a long existence; even the *Efemeridas Literarias*, and its continuation the *Memorial Literario* existed only for a few years. Before the Constitution, no other political paper existed but the *Gazette de Madrid;* during the constitutional government numerous papers appeared, but they were instantly annihilated on the restoration of absolute power.

Establishments for Education.] There are 15 universities[8] in Spain. During the constitutional government a plan was formed for a new and better organization; but nothing of this kind can now be hoped for; the colleges or gymnasias stand entirely under the direction of the priests, and

[8] At the 15 Spanish universities and seminaries were studying in the year 1826:—

UNIVERSITIES.	Philosophy and Natural Philosophy.	Theology.	Jurisprudence.	Canon Law	Medicine.	Total.
Alcala, ...	88	29	232	15	—	364
Cervera, ...	234	98	138	28	75	573
Granada, ...	171	81	417	47	96	812
Huesca, ...	145	140	236	36	—	537
Onate, ...	123	—	116	11	—	270
Orchuela, ...	61	26	32	5	—	121
Oviedo, ...	156	73	169	22	—	420
Salamanca, ...	96	69	185	22	46	418
Santiago, ...	363	124	414	89	64	1,054
Seville, ...	240	56	378	7	189	870
Toledo, ...	114	49	77	17	—	257
Valencia, ...	512	179	483	26	364	1,569
Valladolid, ...	289	95	715	85	63	1,247
Sarragossa, ...	297	256	419	52	151	1,175
Majorca, ...	96	20	61	—	—	177
	2,985	1,295	4,077	462	1,048	9,867
Seminaries, ...	2.200	1,610	—	—	—	3,810
	5,185	2,905	4,077	462	1,018	13,677

the elementary schools both in towns and villages are wretched beyond description. In general, all instruction in Spanish schools of any kind rests chiefly upon dogmas and scholastic maxims, and is fitted to stifle in the scholar every idea of his own. The Estudios Reales de San Isidoro at Madrid was better organized in recent times, but we are unable to state if the new organization has been kept up. Of schools destined for a particular purpose there are *Seminarios conciliares* for the young clergy; a school of medicine at Madrid; and several schools of surgery at Madrid and other towns; an academy for engineers at Zamora; one for artillery at Segovia; a marine school at Isla de Leon and some other towns; and several mathematical and mining schools, drawing academies, and schools of commerce. Learned societies—as we have already mentioned—are very numerous in Spain. The principal are: the academy of sciences at Seville; the academy of the fine arts at Madrid, founded in 1752; the academies of arts at Seville, Cadiz, Valencia, Sarragossa, and Palma; the geographical academy at Valladolid; the academies of Spanish and canonical law; the theological academy; the Latin academy; the academy of Spanish language at Madrid; the historical society; the academies of medicine at Madrid, Barcelona, and Seville; the society for natural philosophy at Barcelona; the mathematical academy at Granada; the marine academy at Alicante; and numerous agricultural and patriotic societies, of which many were formed during the insurrection, and the time of the Constitution, in 1808. Of public libraries there are at Madrid the royal library and six others; one in the Escurial; two at Valencia; two at Sarragossa; and one at Toledo; besides those belonging to the different universities. There is a cabinet of natural history, and a collection of coins and antiquities at Madrid; a museum at Barcelona; and observatories at Madrid, Isla de Leon, Passage, Ferrol, &c. The principal botanic gardens are at Madrid, Cadiz, Cartagena, and St Lucar.

CHAP. V.—GOVERNMENT—REVENUE—MILITARY AND MARINE FORCE.

Government.] Since the time of Charles V. who, if he did not dissolve the cortes or parliament, at least eluded their authority, and taught his successor likewise to elude it, Spain has been an absolute monarchy. The cortes have sometimes been assembled for the sake of form, but they no longer enjoy even a shadow of power. The occasion on which they are generally assembled is, at the succession of a new king, for the purpose of doing him homage. For this purpose they were assembled in 1789, when in the church of St Jerome, in Madrid, they promised allegiance to his late Catholic majesty. "On this occasion," says Bourgoigne, "letters of convocation are sent to all the grandees; to all persons bearing titles of Castile; and to every city which has a right to send deputies to the cortes. The two first classes represent the nobility; the priests sit in the name of the clergy; and the cities which depute one of their magistrates, represent the people."

In 1713, the cortes were assembled by Philip V. that they might give their approbation to the pragmatic sanction. At that time, it was ordained that the cortes should be represented by a permanent committee, consisting of eight members, of whom the provinces of Castile nominate six; Catalonia and Majorca, one; and Valencia and Arragon, one. These hold

their offices for eight years. To them was originally committed the management of great part of the taxes; but they were not suffered long to enjoy that power. Alberoni, in 1718, transferred the power to the hands of the king; and, since that time, the committee has the management of no more money than is necessary to pay the salaries of the members. In virtue of these offices, they are members of the council of finances; and these have the privilege of assenting to such taxes as the king and his ministers are pleased to levy.

The following are the chief courts or councils by which the administration of Spain is conducted: 1*st.* The council of despatches, likewise called the cabinet council, or *junto.* This is the council which has the sole power in the affairs of the kingdom. 2*d.* The council of state. In this council the king presides, and the archbishop of Toledo, from his office, is always a member. 3*d.* The council of finances, which arranges the taxes which it becomes necessary to impose. 4*th.* The council of war. 5*th.* The supreme council of Castile. 6*th.* The supreme council of Arragon. 7*th.* The supreme council of the inquisition. 8*th.* The council of the orders of knighthood. 9*th.* The council of the Crusada. This council, under the fiction of raising money, for the purpose of being expended in the crusades, imposes on the clergy the necessary taxes.

The chief ministers are the minister for foreign affairs, who may with propriety be called the prime minister, and who is distinguished by being called the secretary of state; the minister of war, whose authority is far from being extensive; the minister of marine; and the minister of finances. As all these depend on the king's pleasure, their only business is to transact the business of the nation in the way which is most agreeable to their master. In his title the king enumerates all the provinces and territories, which he at present possesses, or has at any time possessed. On ordinary occasions, he is called his Catholic majesty, a title which was given by the pope to king Ferdinand in 1496. The heir apparent is styled prince of Asturias; and the other children of the royal family *Infantas.* Crowning is a ceremony which the Spanish monarchs never use. The royal ordonnances are marked with a stamp or seal, bearing the words, *Jo el Rey,* 'I the king.' The Spanish nobility are divided into *Titulados,* or those of the higher, and *Hidalgos* those of the lower order. The higher order consists of dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and barons. These are styled illustrious, place the title *Don* before their Christian name, and are addressed by the title of their eminences. Among the most valuable of their privileges, is that of wearing their hats in the presence of the king. This privilege is not peculiar to them; it is enjoyed by cardinals, nuncios, archbishops, the grand priors of Castile, and of Malta, the generals of the orders of St Dominic and St Francis, ambassadors, knights of the golden fleece, and of the orders of St James, Calatrava, and Alcantara; but it is said never to be made use of without a nod from the king, expressing his approbation. None of the higher nobility can be arrested without express orders from their sovereign. The inferior nobility are extremely numerous, for the most part extremely proud, and often extremely poor

In judicial matters, the civil and canon laws are sometimes adhered to: and Spain has several ancient codes, which form what may be denominated the law of the country. Lawyers are numerous, but not remarkable for their knowledge, and, amid the multiplicity of municipal and provincial laws, they usually continue to throw matters into still greater confusion.

Revenue.] The Spanish revenue was once the largest in Europe, but is now greatly reduced, being computed by Balbi in 1826, to be about £4,454,000 yearly. This sum is raised from various sources, according as it suits the conveniency or exigency of government, but chiefly by taxes imposed upon all kinds of property. It may easily be believed that the expenditure is more than equal to the revenue; and that the debt—which is at present nearly £165,000,000—will rapidly accumulate.

Military and Marine Force.] The army which is maintained in time of peace is said to amount to about 50,000; during war it is more numerous; but is very deficient in discipline. During the late war, Spain possessed a considerable number of ships; but they were vainly opposed to the superior skill and courage of British seamen. Considering the slender share of commerce which is conducted by Spain, it is not probable that the kingdom affords a sufficient number of seamen to man a large fleet. In 1826 Spain had only 10 men-of-war and 16 frigates, including both the oldest hulks, and the vessels on the stocks; and in 1817 the government was obliged to ask the loan of several ships of war from Russia to convey troops to America.

CHAP. VI.—TOPOGRAPHY—KINGDOM OF CASTILE.

THE kingdom of Spain is divided into 4 large divisions, which are subdivided into provinces: viz.

I. THE KINGDOM OF CASTILE.

Castile was the inheritance of Isabella, but her successors united several other districts with it, so that it now consists of 23 provinces, occupying altogether a surface of about 140,000 square miles, with a population of about 1,320,000.

1*st. The Province of Madrid.*] This province is a part of Castilla la Nueva, or New Castile. Its surface is a table-land, of which the lowest parts are 1700 feet above the level of the sea. In the N. W. it is bounded by the chain of Guadarrama. The soil is clay and sand impregnated with saltpetre. There are large tracts quite sterile, though intersected by several rivers. The principal river is the Tajo, to the basin of which the whole province belongs; its subsidiary rivers are the Xarama, the Henares, the Manzanares, and the Guadarrama, none of which are navigable, and most of them entirely dry in summer. The climate is hot but variable; and sometimes the winds blow from all different directions in the course of one morning. In summer the thermometer frequently reaches 36 to 40° R.; in winter there are severe north winds, and the thermometer indicates 5 to 8° R. under the freezing point. In general the air is pure and very much rarified; but the frequent changes of weather occasion fevers and consumption. The inhabitants are a grave, proud, and indolent race; but they have a lively imagination, and in spite of their gravity, manifest a great inclination for noisy pastimes. Spanish is spoken here with most purity and elegance, and the Castilian dialect has become the language of literature. Agriculture is very much neglected, and the finest tracts of land are often uncultivated. Gardening is carried on round the capital; and some wine and oil of very inferior quality are produced. There are 69 towns and 8 villages, 93 parishes, 53 monasteries, 92 nunneries, and

77 establishments of charity in this province. Madrid is the chief town and the capital of the whole kingdom.

City of Madrid.] Madrid, at present the royal residence, and capital of Spain, was formerly an inconsiderable place, till the court was attracted thither by the purity of the air, for which it is indebted to its great elevation. It contains 7,500 houses, and 170,000 inhabitants. As a metropolis its chief advantage appears to be its central situation; it can never become a place of much commerce. This city is said in general to make a handsome appearance; the streets are regular, and many of the buildings magnificent. They are however generally of brick; and except the abodes of the rich, few of them have glass windows. The churches are 77 in number, many of them are magnificent but tasteless edifices, and are equalled in these respects by the convents, hospitals, and palaces. At the west end of the town stands the royal palace, which is by no means equal to several palaces in other parts of Spain. An extensive plain on the east side of the town is distinguished by the name of the Prado. It is planted with rows of trees, and beautified with fountains. In this place the great display their equipages, and hither all ranks resort in quest of amusement. The streets of Madrid are in general straight; and are now, by the care of the police, kept very clean. The most spacious, and the best frequented, are said to be those of Alcala, San-Bernardo, and Fuencarral. The chief squares are those of San-Joachim, San-Domingo, La Covado, and Plaza Mayor. The last mentioned is the most regular and magnificent, and in it the markets are held. All the squares are adorned with fountains,—an ornament peculiarly agreeable in a warm climate. Madrid is 41,333 feet, or 2 leagues in circumference; and contains 506 streets, 42 squares, 15 gates, 56 convents, colleges, seminaries, and hospitals, and 65 public edifices, 17 fountains, and several promenades. It is divided into eight districts; and each district into eight wards, to each of which an alcalde is appointed, who is chosen annually by the inhabitants. Philip II. built a bridge over the small river Manzanares, which runs by it, though it is generally dry in summer; which occasioned the sarcastic remark, that Philip would be obliged to sell the bridge to buy water for the river. There is another bridge over this river, however, nearly 2000 feet in length. Madrid has 13 academies and learned societies. The Spanish academy, founded in 1714, consisting of 24 members, including the president and secretary, has for its chief object the cultivation of the Spanish language, and the improvement of Spanish literature in general. It compiled a dictionary of the Spanish language, in six folio volumes, which has since been re-published with many improvements. It has published splendid editions of several of the Spanish classics, particularly of Don Quixote. The academy of history originated in an association of private persons, who united their labours for the purpose of collecting and preserving whatever served to illustrate the history of Spain. In 1730, Philip V. confirmed their association by a charter. Like the former, this academy consists of twenty-four members. The third academy is that of the fine arts. The fourth is that of medicine; but is said to enjoy little celebrity. Several royal palaces adorn this metropolis and its neighbourhood. The New palace, situated within the city, was founded in 1737. It is square: each of the fronts being 470 feet in length, and 100 feet high. The audience-chamber is described as being remarkably magnificent; it is 180 feet long, 90 feet wide, and as much in height, adorned with a superb painted ceiling, and hung with crimson velvet. At the

distance of 22 miles N.W. from the city, stands the Escurial, esteemed one of the most magnificent palaces in the world. It is described, however, as being upon the whole a gloomy edifice; and though extremely rich it is more superb than beautiful. The other palaces in the environs of Madrid are El Buen-Retiro, with a library of 130,000 volumes, Casa del Campo, Florida, le Pardo, Sarcuela, Aranjuiz, and St Ildefonso. Madrid was the birth-place of Lopez de Vega, Villegas, and Erzilla. The painters Lanchorez, Fernandez, and Nunnez, were also born here.

2d. The Province of Toledo.] This province forms also a great part of New Castile. It is a mountainous country, intersected by the Sierra del Rubial, del Castellon, and other ridges. The principal river is the Tajo; and the tributary rivers are the Guadarrama, and the Alberche. There are 2 cividades, 224 villas, 94 villages, 376 parishès, 90 monasteries, 68 nunneries, and 62 hospitals and establishments of charity in this province. The *Cento Espanal* mentions 127 deserted places in this district. The principal town is Toledo, the seat of the archbishop and primate of the kingdom. This town is crowded with churches and convents; there are upwards of 25 parochial churches, 38 convents, 14 hospitals, 3 chapels, and 19 hermitages, and only 25,000 inhabitants in this city. The aqueducts which formerly existed are now ruined. Toledo was the birth-place of the poets Garcilaso de la Vega and Naharvo.—Alcala de Henares, on the river Henares, with 4,760 inhabitants, is the seat of a university founded by Cardinal Ximenes in 1499. In the library is the original of the famous Complutensian Bible which was printed in this town. It was the birth-place of the immortal Miguel de Cervantes.—Matarrubia, Puebla de los Valles, Tortuera on the Xarama, Torrelaguna, and Uceda on the Xarama, form a district from which a celebrated family takes the ducal title, and which formerly composed the little kingdom of the Patones, a small tribe who retired at the invasion of the Moors into a narrow valley between high mountains, where they kept up their ancient manners and customs, having a king of their own, who was acknowledged by the monarchs of Spain, and only resigned his dignity in the midst of the 18th century. The inhabitants of this valley are occupied with agriculture, the rearing of goats and of bees. They have preserved their ancient dress and manners —Talavera de la Royna, a town with 5,000 inhabitants, on the Tajo, was the birth-place of the historian Mariana, and the scene of a battle on the 27th and 28th of July 1809, in which Wellington defeated the French.

3d. The Province of Guadalaxara.] There are 2 cividades, 180 villas, 119 villages, 251 parishes, 26 monasteries, 12 nunneries, and 17 establishments of charity in this part of New Castile. This province is a high table-land intersected with mountains, and thinly clothed with trees. The principal ridge is the Samosierra. The chief town is Guadalaxara on the Henares, an ill-built town, with about 12,000 inhabitants. Its important royal manufacture of broad cloth, called that of San Fernando, occupies about 4,800 weavers and spinners in this town. It furnishes splendid *Panas de Vicuna* in crimson and purple; but the articles are very expensive.

4th. The Province of Cuenca.] This province is one of the most desert and least populous districts of Spain. It contains 2 cividades, 240 villas, and 37 villages, with 45 monasteries, 22 nunneries, and 6 establishments of charity. It is a mountainous country with large and barren plains. The ridges are branches of the large Iberian chain; among them

are the Sierra de Molina, the Sierra Campillos, and the Sierra de Cuenca. The Tajo, the Xucar, and the Giguela water this province. There are some very small inland lakes or *Lagunas*, and a few mineral springs here. The climate is severe on the mountains, but in the valleys and plains oppressively hot. Although only one-sixth of the surface is cultivated, the harvest is generally sufficient for the very thin population. Sheep are the principal production of this province.—The chief town is Cuenca on a high barren rock with 6,000 inhabitants.

5th. The Province of Mancha.] This district of New Castile contains 2 cividades, 94 villas, 111 parishes, 39 monasteries, 28 nunneries, and 8 establishments of charity. The interior is a large plain. The soil is productive in some parts; but in others very sterile. The principal rivers are the Guadiana, the Guadarmena, and the Fresnadas. The climate is hot and dry. Agriculture would be more productive if better understood, and if a system of artificial irrigation was introduced. The wheat of this province is considered very good, and a considerable quantity is exported hence, whilst other grains are imported. The best mules in Spain are reared here. The quick-silver mines of Almaden are probably, next to those of Idria, the richest in Europe, yielding annually from 5,000 to 6,000 cwt. of quick-silver, and 60 cwt. of cinnabar. The inhabitants are a strong and vigorous race of men, distinguished by their sobriety and honesty. The same dress and costumes which Cervantes describes in his story of Don Quixote are still preserved here. The chief town is Ciudad Real, with 8,400 inhabitants. A celebrated fair of asses and mules is annually held here.—Almaden de Azogue contains about 10,000 inhabitants, chiefly miners.

6th. The Province of Burgos.] This province forms a part of Castilla la Vieja, or Old Castile. It is a high table-land, surrounded and intersected by mountains, which form large valleys. The principal mountains are the Cantabrian chain in the north; in the centre the Sierra de Oca, one of the highest mountains in the interior of Spain; on the N. W. the Sierra Reynosa; and on the E. the Sierra de San Lorenzo, de San Millan, de San Cruz, and de Umbria. The two principal rivers are the Ebro and the Duero; the Pisuerga runs only on the boundaries of the province. The inhabitants of Old Castile are of smaller stature than those of New Castile; their countenance is oval, with expressive features, and a dark complexion. They are a sober and somewhat melancholy race—but good-natured, simple in their manners, and benevolent. There are 5 cividades, 583 villas, 1,118 villages, 1,947 parishes, 84 monasteries, 49 nunneries, and 54 establishments of charity in this province. The chief town is Burgos on the river Arlanzon, with 11,000 inhabitants. It contains 14 parochial churches, 24 convents, and 4 hospitals. It is particularly important as being the principal wool-market, of which more than 40,000 cwts. are sold annually. Burgos was the birth-place of the two most renowned Spanish warriors Fernando Gonzales, for whom a triumphal arch is erected here, and Ruy Diaz de Viar, called the Cid. This city was bravely and successfully defended by the French against Wellington in 1812.—Santander, on the coast, is one of the principal commercial towns in the N. of Spain. It has a very good harbour.

7th. The Province of Soria.] There are 5 cividades, 135 villas, 497 villages, 664 parishes, 27 monasteries, 13 nunneries, and 10 establishments of charity in this district of Old Castile. The surface is highly elevated, and every where intersected by mountains. The plains are barren. The

Iberian mountains run from the N.W. into this province, and form several divisions, as the Sierra de Moncayo, and the Sierra de Levanto. The Ebro flows in a S.E. direction on the northern boundaries. The Duero rises here on the Pico de Urbion. The climate is temperate. Agriculture should form the principal occupation of the inhabitants of this province; but it is very much neglected, and almost two-thirds of the lands lie uncultivated, the people devoting themselves principally to the rearing of cattle. The mountains are rich in metals and minerals.—The chief town is Soria on the Duero, with 6,000 inhabitants, built on the same spot where stood in ancient times the celebrated Numantia.

8*th*. *The Province of Segovia.*] In this province of Old Castile there are 1 cividade, 111 villas, 288 villages, 314 parishes, 25 monasteries, 13 nunneries, and 19 establishments of charity. It is a high table-land, intersected by mountains, some of which are well covered with wood, In the N.E. rises the Sierra de Ayllon; in the S. the Sierra de Guadarrama intersects the country. None of the principal rivers can properly be said to run through this province. There is corn enough raised to allow of exportation; but sheep form the riches of this province. The chief town is Segovia, with 9,500 inhabitants. It is built upon a high rock. A celebrated aqueduct, erected by Trajan, exists here. It is 3,000 paces in length, and consists of 161 arches, of which the highest is 120 feet.—At San-Ildefonso, a town of 4,827 inhabitants, there is a royal castle called the Granja, with a splendid collection of pictures, and a garden which is remarkable for its numerous jets d'eau. There is also a royal manufacture for glass and mirrors, at which, before the Revolution, mirrors were manufactured of 145 inches in height, and 85 in breadth, which were valued at 15,000 florins, or £1,518 15*s*.—El Escurial, on the southern declivity of the Guadarrama, is a melancholy-looking district, with a population of 2,000 souls. The celebrated convent of Hieronymites, called San Lorenzo el Real, built by Philip III. in memory of the victory of S. Quintin, at an expense of 23,673,675 florins, or £2,663,281 15*s*. 9*d*. is situated in this district. It is a colossal building, in the fantastic form of a gridiron—the instrument of martyrdom of the saint—with 17 divisions, and 22 large yards; and is inhabited by 150 monks of the order of St Hieronymus; there are also rooms for the king and his court. The splendid church, built in imitation of St Peter's at Rome, contains the burial places of the kings of Spain and their families. The library is remarkable for its Arabian and other eastern manuscripts.

9*th*. *The Province of Avila.*] This is a very elevated district of Old Castile, through which run several ridges, intersected with fertile valleys. The Guadarrama is the most remarkable chain. The Tajo merely touches the south side; the Alberche is one of its tributary rivers. There are 1 cividade, 82 villas, 202 villages, 299 parishes, 28 monasteries, 19 nunneries, 9 establishments of charity, and 74 ruined places in this province.—Avila, with 4,200 inhabitants, is the chief town. It is a miserable place, destitute of industry, and crowded with beggars.

10*th*. *The Province of Leon.*] The Cantabrian mountains run through the north of this province, on the boundaries of Asturias. They rise to the height of the line of eternal snow. The principal river is the Esla; among the less considerable are the Valderaduay, and the Sil. This province is better supplied with water than any of the others; the rivers do not entirely dry up in summer, and in winter they sometimes overflow their banks. There are several mineral springs. The climate is damp and

cold in winter, particularly in the mountains; in summer it is temperate, pure, and pleasant. The rearing of cattle is the principal occupation; and the inhabitants are considered more industrious than in the other provinces. There are 2 cividades, 197 villas, 1,140 villages, 1,373 parishes, 32 monasteries, 18 nunneries, and 10 establishments of charity in this province. —The chief place is Leon, with 7,000 inhabitants. It is a ruined and dirty town. It was called *Legio* by the Romans, and was the residence of the kings of Leon till the year 1029. It is now crowded with beggars. —Astorga, with 2,000 inhabitants, is situated on the river Tuesta, and is surrounded with massy walls. It made a gallant defence against the French in 1810.

11*th*. *The Province of Palencia.*] This district is a part of the kingdom of Leon. It is a long and narrow tract of land. The principal river is the Pisuerga. In the N. W. is a large swamp, with mephitic exhalations, called *Nava*. There are 1 cividade, 130 villas, 175 villages, 315 parishes, 21 monasteries, 11 nunneries, and 37 establishments of charity in this province.—The chief town, Palencia, with 9,000 inhabitants, possesses some manufactures and commerce.

12*th*. *The Province of Toro.*] The principal mountain in this district of Leon is the Sierra de Reynosa, a branch of the Cantabrian mountains, in which the Ebro has its source. Agriculture and gardening are well-conducted here. There are 1 cividade, 82 villas, 239 villages, 391 parishes, 18 monasteries, 11 nunneries, and 24 establishments of charity in this province. The chief town is Toro, with 7,500 inhabitants. It is one of the oldest towns in Spain. The *Leges de Toro* were promulgated at a Diet held here in 1508.

13*th*. *The Province of Valladolid.*] This country is for the most part flat, but the situation is high. The plains in the neighbourhood of the rivers are pretty well cultivated. The principal rivers are the Duero, the Pisuerga, and the Adaja. The soil is productive, and the fruit is delicious, and easily cultivated. A little activity would convert this country into a paradise. There are 2 cividades, 174 villas, 288 villages, 556 parishes, 71 monasteries, 51 nunneries, and 31 establishments of charity in this district.—Valladolid is the capital; it lies on the Pisuerga, and has 30,000 inhabitants. The university is the most numerously attended in Spain. The town is in a ruined state. The royal palace, once the residence of the kings of Castile, is mostly in ruins. There are 46 convents in this city.

14*th*. *The Province of Zamora.*] This part of the kingdom of Leon is an elevated district. The Sierra Culebra is the most extensive chain of mountains. The Duero divides the country into two parts. There is still less industry in this than in the former provinces. There are 1 cividade, 54 villas, 148 villages, 276 parishes, 13 monasteries, 10 nunneries, and 6 establishments of charity in the province.—Zamora, with 9,000 inhabitants, is the chief town.

15*th*. *The Province of Salamanca.*] This province forms the southern part of the kingdom of Leon.—It is bordered by high mountains, which are branches of the Guadarrama. The Duero divides it from Portugal. There are several mineral springs, of which those of Bannos and Bejar are the most important. Agriculture is quite neglected, and could, in spite of the hot and dry climate, and the want of rain, be much better conducted. The rearing of cattle is the principal branch of industry, and the smuggling on the Portuguese limits produces a considerable sum. There

are 2 cividades, 131 villas, 451 villages, 381 parishes, 54 monasteries, 29 nunneries, and 23 establishments of charity. This province was much more flourishing in the 15th and 16th centuries. The *Censo Espanol* informs us that there are 289 ruined or deserted places in this province. The chief town is Salamanca.

City of Salamanca.] Salamanca is a large, ancient, and handsome city, situated in the form of an amphitheatre, upon the banks of the Tormes, a stream which falls into the Duero. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan of Compostella; and has a royal administration, composed of a correggidorat, a governor, an alcalde mayor, and common alcaldes. This city contains a cathedral and collegiate church; 25 parish-churches, 20 monasteries, 11 nunneries, an university, 25 private colleges, 4 great colleges, and several hospitals, penitentiary houses, chapels, and hermitages. There are 80 endowed professors at Salamanca, 61 of whom belong to the university, which was transferred hither from Palencia in 1239, and enjoys a revenue of 1,200,000 reals, or £12,500 sterling. The scholars of this university amounted in 1826 to only 418—a miserably small number when compared with that of former times, when upwards of 15,000 students are said to have attended here. The university has a large hall capable of containing 2,000 persons; above the piazzas is a good library, where the books are secured by iron chains. There is also a large church for the schools, in which ten masses are daily said for the different classes; and near this school is a large infirmary in which the utmost possible care is taken of the sick scholars. Eight of the professors, who teach theology, have each a salary of 1,000 crowns, annually; the other 72 professors have only 6,000 reals, or £62 10*s.* sterling of salary. The rector is annually chosen by the 8 professors of divinity; under him is the grand master of the classes, or principal, who has a salary of 8,000 ducats, and is besides a canon of the cathedral. The scholars are all clad in black gowns like priests, and are subjected to very strict discipline, although they enjoy great privileges. This city suffered much in the late war. It was taken in 1812, by lord Wellington, after an obstinate defence of fourteen days. Ciudad Rodrigo, upon the Agueda, 48 miles S.W. from Salamanca, built upon the ruins of the ancient *Merobriga*, is one of the frontier fortresses of Spain, on the side of Portugal. Over the Tormes is a very handsome stone bridge built by the Romans, consisting of 27 arches, and 500 feet in length; and beyond the walls is a fine Roman causeway.

16*th.* *The Province of Asturias.*] Asturias—generally called *The Asturias*, from its ancient divisions into Asturia de Oviedo and Santillana—is a coast land. The Cantabrian chain runs from the E. into the country, and, under the name of Sierra de Asturias, covers it with mountains, ravines, and fertile valleys. The coasts are truly enchanting, and everywhere present the most beautiful scenery. The climate is damp and foggy; in the centre cool, and on the coasts mild but not quite healthy. Fruit is very abundant and delicious. Chesnuts are a principal and most useful production. The Asturians are a strong, laborious, rough, gallant race; honest, and enthusiastically attached to their country. Pride and bigotry are their chief faults. The Asturian, if not able to earn his livelihood in his own country, wanders forth into some of the other provinces; and when he has made a little money, returns home to close his life amid the scenes of his childhood. The *Vaqueros* are a small tribe living in winter on the sea-coast, and in summer on the mountains of Leytariegos in this province. There is only 1 cividade, 8 villas, and 6 villages in this district,

but there are a great number of scattered dwellings, and 688 parishes, 15 monasteries, 8 nunneries, and 13 establishments of charity.—The chief town is Oviedo, with 7,405 inhabitants, the seat of a university founded in 1580.—Gijon, with 3,200 inhabitants, was once the residence of the prince Pelayo.

17th. The Province of Galicia.] Antillon in 1807 estimated the population of this province at 1,400,000; but Hassel thinks this calculation too high, because the population has been diminishing since 1787. The Cantabrian mountains run from Asturias into this province, and end at Cape Finisterre. The principal river is the Minho, which has its sources in the N. part of the country. Some of the mountains are covered almost the whole year with snow. The climate is temperate on the coast; and on the whole very healthy. Agriculture is carried on with great activity, and the flax which is grown here is considered the best in Europe; fruit is abundant, and the excellent pastures facilitate the rearing of cattle. The fishing in the rivers and in the sea is very productive, and upon the whole there is a greater amount of industry in Galicia than in most of the Spanish provinces; the manufacturing of linen is particularly extensive, and also that of leather; and smuggling with Portugal is carried on to considerable extent. The Galicians are a vigorous and laborious race, and manifest a strong attachment to their native country, notwithstanding that the soil they cultivate does not belong to them, but to oppressive nobles, and a rapacious church. About 100,000 Galicians emigrate every year into Castile and Leon to assist at the harvest. There are 7 cividades, 77 villas, 3,425 villages, 3,683 parishes, 74 monasteries, 25 nunneries, and 35 establishments of charity in this province.

Corunna.] Corunna, a seaport town, is reckoned the capital of Galicia, from being the seat of a royal audience, a governor-general, and the intendant of the province. It lies at the bottom of a hill, on a tongue of land washed on three sides by the waters of the Atlantic; and is of a circular form. The population, according to Hassel and Antillon, is 11,000 persons; the garrison is sometimes very numerous. The harbour is large and safe being defended by two castles. Corunna is remarkable for the disastrous but masterly retreat of the British from Astorga, before vastly superior numbers of the French. Contrary winds having prevented the transports which were to take the troops on board from getting timeously into the harbour, the enemy came up after a considerable part of the British were embarked; the remaining troops were attacked by 30,000 French, under the walls of Corunna, when a desperate battle ensued, in which Sir John Moore, the British commander, was mortally wounded, but in which the French were repulsed, with the loss of more than 2000 men, whilst that of the British amounted to 800; after which they made good their embarkation, leaving amongst their dead the body of their brave general, who was interred on the bastion of Corunna. Its longitude is 8° 23′ E. of the Peak of Teneriffe; latitude 43° 23′ N.

Ferrol.] Ferrol is also a seaport town of Galicia, lying to the N.N.E. of Corunna, and 10 leagues off Cape Ortegal. Previous to 1752, it was a small fishing-hamlet; but a town has been since built upon a regular plan, and it now contains 10,000 inhabitants. It is the first naval arsenal in Spain. Art and nature have conspired to make it impregnable; for it is almost impossible to lay a regular siege to it either by sea or land. Its longitude is 8° 33′ E. of the Peak of Teneriffe; latitude 43° 28′ N.

Santjago.] The town of San-jago de Compostella with 25,000 inha-

bitants, possesses a magnificent cathedral in which the Apostle James, the patron-saint of Spain, is said to be buried. A university was founded here in 1532.

18*th. The Province of Estremadura.*] A large plain, through which several chains of mountains run, constitute this province. The Tajo and Guadiana flow from here into Portugal. The climate is hot, but changeable. Agriculture is entirely neglected, and in spite of a luxuriously fertile soil, this province does not produce sufficient grain to supply its own consumption; the inhabitants make good soldiers; and the best Spanish generals have been born in Estremadura. There are 7 cividades, 228 villas, 415 parishes, 80 monasteries, 95 nunneries, and 33 establishments of charity in this province.—San Geronimo de Justi is a celebrated convent of Hieronymites in this province, in which Charles V. spent the last two years of his life, and breathed his last on the 21st of September 1558. The valley of Batuecas, which is here enclosed between high mountains, is watered by a small river of the same name, and inhabited by a tribe of particular manners, dress, and dialect, who live almost wholly secluded from the rest of the world.—Truxillo with 3,600 inhabitants, and 10 convents, was the birth-place of Carlo Fernando Pizarro, the conqueror of Peru.—Merida, on the Guadiana, with 4,500 inhabitants, is celebrated for its numerous Roman antiquities.

Badajoz.] Badajoz is a large and strong city, the capital of Estremadura, containing 5 parish-churches, 7 monasteries, 5 nunneries, and 5 hospitals. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan of Compostella, and has about 14,000 inhabitants. It stands upon an eminence on the left side of the Guadiana, 12 miles east of Elvas, the frontier fortress of Portugal in this quarter. It is what military engineers denominate a fortress of the third order; being neither so strong by nature, nor so healthy by situation as Elvas; but being the bulwark of Spain, it is strongly fortified, and protected by two castles. It has a fine bridge over the Guadiana, of Roman workmanship, and containing 28 arches, the largest of which is 78 feet in the span, and the smallest 21 feet. Badajoz has stood some memorable sieges, being several times taken and retaken by the Moors and Christians. In 1658, it was besieged in vain by the Portuguese; and in 1661, they were totally defeated at the bridge by the archduke John of Austria. During the famous Succession war it was besieged by the allies under the command of the earl of Galway, and the marquis Das Minas, who were defeated under its walls by the French, commanded by the marechal de Thesse, and compelled to raise the siege. It was taken by the French in 1811, after a feeble defence, through the cowardice or treachery of the governor. It was again besieged by lord Wellington shortly after its surrender; but owing to the want of heavy artillery, and the advance of marshal Soult with 26,000 veteran troops, he was compelled to abandon the enterprise. It was, however, again invested in the spring of 1812 by lord Wellington, and taken by storm after a siege of twelve days, when the garrison, consisting of 4000 men, with Philippon their general, were made prisoners of war. The loss of the allies during the siege and storm was very severe, amounting in killed and wounded to 3,860 British, and 1010 Portuguese. The enemy lost in the storming of the place 1,200 men, besides what were killed during the siege. Badajoz is 215 British miles, horizontal distance S.S.W. of Madrid.

19*th. The Province of Seville.*] Seville is a part of Andalusia. On the North it is surrounded by mountains; the coast is rocky, with

some promontories, among which are Cape Trafalgar, and the Punta de Europa, on which lies Gibraltar. The finest plain is that of Xerez, and the neighbourhood of Ecija is so fertile that the corn gives a forty-fold harvest. The principal ridge is the Sierra Morena; the second is the Sierra de Ronda which terminates in the Punta de Europa. The principal river is the beautiful Guadalquivir, which is navigable to the town of Seville: another large river is the Guadiana; there are also the Pinta and the Xenil. The climate is delightful, and the sea and mountain-breezes moderate the heat. There are frequent thunder-storms, and it has been remarked that when there is much rain in March and April, there are in summer, fevers. This province produces the finest wines in Spain, viz.: the Pinto, the Xerez or Sherry, and the Mansanilla. There are few manufactures; but the most important commercial towns of Spain are situated in this province, which is on the whole much more wealthy than those of the centre and north of Spain. The inhabitants are in general like those of Castile; but their fancy is more glowing, and their passions stronger; they have not the gravity of the Castilian, and are boastful to a proverb. Their dialect is like the Castilian, but more guttural. There are 17 cividades, 163 villas, 24 villages, 303 parishes, 245 monasteries, 170 nunneries, 76 establishments of charity, 2,505 farms and country-houses, 1,151 ventas or isolated inns, and no less than 512 ruined places in this province. Seville, on the Guadalquivir, in the midst of a charming country, is the chief town. Townshend in 1787, estimated the number of inhabitants at 80,268; Antillon in 1807 at 100,000; and Rehfues at 96,000. The university here was founded in 1504. There are 82 altars, and an organ with 5000 pipes in this church. Seville was the birth-place of Trajan and Hadrian, of the poets Fernando de Herrera, and Lope de Rueda; and of the painters Francisco Pacheco, Luis de Vargas, and Caro. The tribunal of the Inquisition was first established here in 1481. At Xeres de la Frontera, in the neighbourhood of Seville, 122,000 casks of wine are annually made, of which 50,000 are exported under the name of Sherry, to England and America.

Cadiz.] Cadiz, on account of the superior excellence of its harbour, has engrossed the trade once enjoyed by Seville. This city is situated upon an island, but so near the continent that it is connected with it by a bridge. The length of the island on which it is situated is said to be 18 miles, its breadth 9 miles. The entrance to the harbour is commanded by two forts, called the Punta and the Matagordo. Nothing can surpass the beauty of this town when viewed from the harbour, and when the eye takes in the numerous country-seats in the neighbourhood. The streets are in general clean, well-paved, and well-lighted; the principal square is that of St Antonio. The houses are built somewhat in the mode of those on the opposite shore of Africa: the roofs are flat, covered with a kind of hard plaster, and the greater part of them crowned with turrets. From the height of the houses, the smallness of the windows, and the narrowness of many of the streets, some parts of the town have a gloomy appearance. Cadiz has two elegant cathedrals, an hospital capable of containing 6000 patients, and a general work-house. Besides the two forts by which the entrance of the harbour is defended, the town is protected by the fortress of St Sebastian. The custom-house duties of Cadiz are very large. Smuggling is so well organized in Spain that of £100,000 worth of goods introduced into Cadiz, £60,000 are smuggled in. The Spanish revenue officers receive no pay, and therefore pay themselves by assisting the smugglers. The town, which formerly had 60,000 inhabitants,

has at present hardly 40,000. Cadiz was rendered memorable during the late war, as the place to which the central Junta retreated from Seville, upon the advance of the French army, which had forced the passes of the Sierra Morena in January 1810. In the late Revolution this city formed the stronghold of the constitutionalists until it was taken by the French. The Isla de Leon, in the immediate vicinity of Cadiz, is separated from the continent by the Rio de San Petri, over which leads a bridge. Towards the N.W. is a rocky causeway about an English mile in length, and 60 feet above the level of the sea, at the extremity of which Cadiz is situated. This causeway was cut through in 1812. San-Fernando, a town with 40,000 inhabitants—of whom the yellow fever in 1819 carried off one-fifth—is situated upon this island. Towards the southern extremity lies the small island of San-Petri, in the neighbourhood of which, when the sea is calm, the ruins of the temple of Hercules, and of the ancient Gades, may yet be seen under the water.—Algeziras, in the bay of Gibraltar, opposite that fortress, contains 4,000 inhabitants. Its harbour is now closed up with sand; formerly a communication between this port and Ceuta was kept up by weekly packet-boats.

GIBRALTAR.] No place in Spain is of greater importance to Britain than the fortress of Gibraltar; and few parts of the world have witnessed more astonishing exertions of British courage and address. To the ancients, the rock on which Gibraltar is founded, was known by the name of *Calpe*, and was generally considered as forming one of the pillars of Hercules, the other being upon the opposite shore. The Arabians, or rather the Moors, distinguish it by the name of *Gebel Tarik*, or the Mount Tarik,—the name of the chief who first led the Moors into Spain.

Rock of Gibraltar.] The mountain of Gibraltar is situated in 36° 9′ north latitude, and in 5° 17′ east longitude from Greenwich. It is the promontory which, with that of Ceuta upon the opposite coast of Barbary, forms the entrance to the Straits of Gibraltar from the Mediterranean; and Europa Point, which is the part of the mountain that advances most towards Africa, is generally regarded as the most southern promontory in Europe. The form of this mountain is oblong; its summit a sharp craggy ridge; its direction is nearly from north to south; and its greatest length, in that direction, falls very little short of three miles. Its breadth varies with the indentations of the shore, but it nowhere exceeds three quarters of a mile. The line of its ridge is undulated, and the two extremes are somewhat higher than its centre. The summit of the Sugar Loaf, which is the point of its greatest elevation towards the south, is 1,439 feet; the Rock Mortar, which is the highest point to the north, is 1,350; and the signal house, which is nearly the central point between these two, is 1,276 feet above the level of the sea. The western side of the mountain is a series of rugged slopes, interspersed with abrupt precipices. Its northern extremity is perfectly perpendicular, except towards the north-west—where what are called *the Lines* intervene, and a narrow passage of flat ground that leads to the isthmus—and is entirely covered with fortifications. The eastern side of the mountain mostly consists of a range of precipices; but a bank of sand, rising from the Mediterranean in a rapid acclivity, covers a third of its perpendicular height. Its southern extremity falls, in a rapid slope, from the summit of the Sugar Loaf, into a rocky flat of considerable extent called Windmill Hill. This flat forms half an oval, and is bounded by a range of precipices, at the southern base of which a second rocky flat takes place, similar in form and extent to

Windmill Hill, and also, like it, surrounded by a precipice, the southern extremity of which is washed by the sea and forms Europa Point. Upon the western side, this peninsular mountain is bounded by the Bay of Gibraltar, which is in length nearly eight miles and a half, and in breadth upwards of five miles. In this bay, the tide frequently rises four feet. Upon the north, the mountain is attached to Spain by a low sandy isthmus, the greatest elevation of which above the level of the sea does not exceed 10 feet; and its breadth, at the base of the rock, is not more than three quarters of a mile. This isthmus separates the Mediterranean on the east from the Bay of Gibraltar on the west. The greater portion of this vast rock being necessarily uncultivated, affords a refuge to wild animals of various descriptions, particularly monkeys. A variety of herbs are also found on different parts of the promontory.

Town of Gibraltar.] The town stands not on the promontory, but at its foot, and on the north-west side. It was in the last siege almost entirely destroyed, but has been rebuilt on an enlarged and improved plan. The houses have flat roofs and large bow-windows. They are generally painted black, with a white strip to mark each story or floor: the black is intended to blunt the dazzling rays of the sun. One large street traverses almost the whole town; it is nearly half a mile in length, and full of shops. The climate, from the vicinity of the sea, is less hot than might be expected in the latitude of 36°, and it is in general healthy; but great precaution is necessary to prevent the introduction of the plague from the adjacent countries to the south and east. The population of the town, exclusive of the garrison, is above 12,000; partly British, partly Spaniards, Italians, Jews, and Moors, all attracted by commerce. Being a general *entrepôt*, its trade embraces a vast variety of articles; cottons, and other manufactures from England; sugar and rum, from the West Indies; tobacco, rice, and flour, from North America; and wine, fruits, silks, and wax, from the Mediterranean. The store-houses are generally well-filled; from the bay, they obtain fish in abundance; and fruits, vegetables, and fresh provisions are received from the opposite coast of Barbary. The port is not natural, but formed by moles; it is of considerable extent, though not secure against all winds.

History.] The importance of the rock of Gibraltar, as a place of strength, was recognized at an early period. In 712, when the Moors, under their commander Tarik, landed upon this part of Spain, a fortress was built for the purpose of securing an intercourse with the opposite shore. Of this castle, the ruins are still said to be visible. The Saracens retained possession of this port till the beginning of the 14th century, when it was taken from them by Ferdinand king of Castile. In 1333, the son of the emperor of Fez again took it from the Spaniards; and, notwithstanding a vain attempt of the latter to reduce it in 1349, it remained in the possession of the prince of Fez till 1410, when it was taken by Joseph III. king of Granada. In 1435, an unsuccessful attempt was made by Henry de Guzman to take it from the monarchs of Granada. His son, John de Guzman, was more fortunate than his father; after a tedious siege, during which the garrison made a vigorous defence, he took it in 1462; and since that time it has remained in the hands of the Christians. In the time of Charles V. the fortifications were augmented. But whatever might have been the strength of Gibraltar in these times, it attained little celebrity in the history of Europe till it fell into the hands of the British. This event took place in 1704. Admiral Rooke had been sent

into the Mediterranean with a powerful fleet, for the purpose of supporting the pretensions of the archduke Charles to the crown of Spain. Rooke's instructions restricted him from undertaking any thing of great importance; but, that he might not incur the reproach of total inactivity, he resolved to attempt the capture of this fortress. The garrison consisted of only about 150 men. The prince of Hesse Darmstadt was landed with 1,800 men, upon the isthmus which connects the rock with the mainland; and a heavy firing was immediately commenced from the ships. In a few hours the Spaniards were driven from their guns; and the garrison having capitulated, marched out with the honours of war, and, on the 24th of July 1704, the British took possession of this important fortress.

The loss of this fort alarmed the Spaniards, and orders were immediately given to retake it. Villadarias, a Spanish general, supported by a French squadron from Toulon, laid siege to the place. The prince of Hesse, who had been left as governor, despatched a message to Admiral Leake, who landed re-enforcements for the garrison, and supplied them with a great quantity of ammunition and provisions for six months. In January 1705, a detachment succeeded in driving the British from part of their works; but after possessing them about an hour, the Spaniards were compelled to retreat; and the British again received a number of additional troops, and a fresh quantity of provisions and ammunition. Despairing of reducing by force a garrison so powerfully supported, the Spaniards retired to some distance, and forming an intrenchment across the isthmus, converted the siege into a blockade. In 1720, under pretence of an expedition into Africa, the Spaniards assembled a powerful armament in the Bay of Gibraltar; but perceiving that their intentions were discovered, they relinquished the projected attack. In 1726, a considerable force assembled in the neighbourhood of the place, and hostilities were immediately commenced. The Spaniards exerted themselves in this attack with much vigour; and the British, with equal resolution, withstood every effort, while they suffered more severely from the bursting of their own pieces—which were now become old—than from the enemy's fire. At length, when the Spaniards had brought upwards of 60 pieces of battering artillery to bear upon the British works, the operations of the siege were interrupted by the intelligence of a general pacification.

From this time till 1779, Gibraltar remained undisturbed. When the Spaniards declared their intention of taking part in that war which separated the American colonies from the empire which gave them birth, the siege of Gibraltar was one of the most early measures by which they evinced their hostile disposition. At this time, however, the fortress was by no means in a defenceless condition; the garrison amounted to upwards of 5000 men, and the courage and skill of governor Elliot, inspired the troops with a confidence which could not be easily intimidated. A Spanish squadron appeared in the bay, and on all sides the garrison was completely blockaded. Rodney hastened to its relief with a strong squadron. On his voyage thither, falling in with a fleet of 16 transports bound from Bilboa to Cadiz, and laden with naval stores and provisions, under convoy of a ship of the line, four frigates, and two armed vessels, he attacked them so successfully that of the whole only one transport escaped. This advantage was quickly followed by another. The fleet of transports had been captured on the 8th of January 1780; on the 16th of the same month, a Spanish squadron, consisting of 11 sail of the line, was discovered near

Cape St Vincent. An attack was immediately commenced; and after a severe conflict, which continued for many hours, the Spaniards were completely defeated. Of 11 ships of the line they lost 7; one blew up at the commencement of the fight, and 6 surrendered themselves to the British. Of these six, two were driven ashore and lost; so that only four were carried into Gibraltar. Having relieved the place, the British fleet soon after sailed, leaving in the harbour only two ships of the line and two frigates. No sooner had the British fleet left the Bay, than the place was again blockaded, and the Spaniards attempted to burn the British ships in the harbour but without success. Yet the unfavourable disposition of the emperor of Morocco, and the vigilance of the Spanish armed vessels, deprived the garrison of every hope of relief from the African coast; and the British were once more almost reduced to the necessity of giving way, when they were again relieved by the arrival of a fleet under admirals Darby, Digby, and Ross. Perceiving that the hopes of their being able by blockade to force the garrison to capitulate were now effectually frustrated, the Spaniards resolved to attempt the reduction of the place by an extraordinary exertion. The works were carried on with new vigour; the batteries were supplied with guns of the heaviest metal; and 200 pieces of battering cannon, and 80 mortars, for the space of three weeks, poured an incessant shower of shot and shells into the garrison. The most eminent engineers of France and Spain were also brought to superintend the approaches of the besiegers; but, on the night of the 27th of November 1781, general Ross, at the head of 2000 picked men, marched out of the garrison, for the purpose of destroying the batteries, and in a few minutes drove from them the astonished Spaniards; spiked the guns and mortars; blew up the magazines; fired the storehouses, and every part of the batteries; and in somewhat less than two hours annihilated the whole works which the enemy had raised at an expense of two millions sterling.

National pride, no less than national interest, was now concerned in the reduction of a place which had baffled every attack; and it was resolved to direct the whole force of the kingdom upon this single enterprise. Under the directions of D'Arcon, a distinguished French engineer, ten battering ships were built, of a construction which rendered them, in the opinion of many, altogether invulnerable. Their bottoms were of thick timber; their sides of wood and cork, which had been soaked in water, with a hollow space between them filled with wet sand; and to prevent them from being burnt by hot balls which might lodge in their sides, numerous pipes were conveyed through every part, which, by pumps, could be plentifully supplied with water. A sloping roof, formed of strong rope netting, covered with wet skins, preserved the men on board from the danger of shells which might fall upon the vessels; and each of these batteries which carried from 10 to 28 guns, was manned by a picked crew of the most resolute Spaniards. These formidable vessels were supported by gun-boats and armed vessels of every kind. 1000 pieces of artillery, and 12,000 of the best troops of France were added to those of Spain; the engineers were the most expert of any in Europe, and numerous volunteers hastened to take part in a siege which now attracted the attention of the whole world. The direction of the whole was committed to the duke de Crillon, who had displayed his military talents in the reduction of Minorca. Destruction now seemed to threaten the devoted garrison. "It appeared," says Captain Drinkwater, who witnessed what he describes, "that they meant, previous to their final efforts, to strike, if

possible, a terror through their opponents, by displaying an armament more powerful than had, probably, ever been brought before any fortress. Forty-seven sail of the line, including three inferior two-deckers; ten battering ships, deemed perfect in design, and esteemed invincible, carrying 212 guns; innumerable frigates, xebeques, bomb-ketches, cutters, gun and mortar boats, and smaller craft for disembarking men, were assembled in the bay. On the land side were most stupendous batteries and works, mounting 200 pieces of heavy ordnance, managed by an army of near 40,000 men, commanded by a hitherto victorious and active general, and animated by the immediate presence of two princes of the blood royal of France, with other dignified personages, and many of their own nobility. In their certainty of success, however, the enemy seemed entirely to have overlooked the nature of that force which was opposed to them; for, though the garrison scarcely consisted of more than 7000 effective men, including the marine brigade, they forgot that they were now veterans in this service, had long been habituated to the efforts of artillery, and were by degrees prepared for the arduous conflict that awaited them. We were at the same time commanded by officers of approved courage, and prudence, and activity; eminent for all the accomplishments of their profession, and in whom we had unbounded confidence. Our spirits, too, were not a little elevated by the success attending the firing of red-hot shot, which in this attack we hoped would enable us to bring our labours to a conclusion, and relieve us from the tedious cruelty of a vexatious blockade." On the 9th of September 1782, an attack was made by the Spaniards upon the land-side, where a battery of 64 guns was opened; but the fire was so warmly returned that the Spaniards were driven from their works. At the same time, several of the ships attacked Europa Point, but their success was not greater. Two of the largest vessels were so damaged, as to be obliged to repair to Algeziras Bay for the purpose of refitting. Crillon now resolved to send forward his invincible batteries, and on the morning of the 13th they were put in motion. Buenventura de Moreno, a distinguished Spanish officer who commanded them, soon brought them to the requisite position; and no sooner was this accomplished than the most dreadful firing commenced. The batteries on sea and on land opened at the same instant, and poured into the garrison an incessant shower of shot: while the British returned the fire with that celerity and skill which the greatness of the occasion demanded. From ten in the morning till noon, this firing was continued without the smallest intermission; about two, Moreno's battering ship was seen to emit smoke as if burning. About midnight, the effects of the red-hot shot which the garrison had used became conspicuous; the battery belonging to the admiral was discovered to be on fire; and, in a short time, other eight were seen successively to be in flames, and made signals of distress. Of their crews, only 400 men were saved by the exertions of the British; the rest were either consumed in the flames, torn in pieces by the explosions, or drowned in their attempts to escape. Thus were the sanguine expectations of the Spaniards completely disappointed; and the invincible batteries in one day totally annihilated.

It has sometimes been doubted whether the advantages derived by Britain from the possession of Gibraltar, are equal to the expense of retaining it. The following are the principal advantages accruing to this country from the possession of this fort. It gives the British the command of the Strait of Gibraltar; it affords accommodation and refreshment

to our merchant-vessels at all times, and is a convenient harbour for our fleets in time of war; it separates the most important harbours of France and Spain from each other, and thus renders the junction of their fleets somewhat difficult; it forms a check to the depredations so often committed by the piratical powers on the coast of Barbary; it gives Britain a greater importance among the Italian States, and, indeed, among all the nations in the vicinity of the Mediterranean, than she could otherwise maintain; and thus, by saving the expense of convoys when these powers are at war with each other, it renders the expense of freight in this part of the world somewhat more moderate than it would otherwise be. These, to a maritime and commercial state, are great advantages, and justify the incurring of considerable expense for the maintenance of the garrison by which they are insured.

20*th. The Province of Cordova.*] The Guadalquivir divides this part of Andalusia into two districts; the northern or the *Sierra*, covered with mountains; and the southern called *la Campina*, a plain with some isolated mountains. The soil is fertile, but the plains want water, though the valleys of the Sierra have a little. The mountains are branches of the Sierra Morena. The Suga another river belongs to the basin of the Guadiana. The climate is oppressively hot in summer, particularly in the plain when the Solano blows over burning fields: in the Sierra the air is purer, agriculture is carried on in the same manner as in Seville, and the fields are divided into Huertas and Serranas. Corn is not grown in sufficient quantity to supply the home consumption, and agriculture cannot improve so long as the soil remains in the hands of the nobility and clergy. Chesnuts form a principal article of food, and wine and oil are extensively produced. On the Sierra are excellent pastures; and the noble Andalusian horse is bred in the studs of this province. There are 4 cividades, 54 villas, 5 villages, 75 parishes, 79 monasteries, 51 nunneries and 11 establishments of charity in Cordova.—The capital of the same name with the province is situated on the right banks of the Guadalquivir in a charming plain. Antillon gives the population at 35,000, Cortambert estimates it at only 26,300, while Balbi rates it so high as 57,000. In the time of the Moors this town is said by their historians to have had, including its suburbs, 1,600 mosques, 900 baths, 80,455 shops, 262,300 houses, and a population of nearly 1,000,000. These accounts, however, seem scarcely credible. There is a most magnificent cathedral with 16 steeples in the city. The ancient Moorish palace here is now employed as a stud, which is thought the best in Spain. Cordova was the birth-place of both Senecas, of Lucan, and Averroës, of the poets Luis de Gongora de Argote, and Juan de Mena, the sculptor Alonzo Cano, and the painter Pablo de Cespedes Zambrano.—Hinajoza with 4,000 inhabitants, has a large manufactory of Monks' frocks.

21*st. The Province of Jaen.*] There are 5 cividades, 57 villas, 13 villages, 133 parishes, 69 monasteries, 42 nunneries, and 33 establishments of charity in this province, which forms the western part of Andalusia. The whole northern part is covered by the Sierra Morena, which has several of its highest points and presents its wildest features here. In the E. runs the Sierra de Cazorla of the same height; in the S. are the vanguards of the Sierra Nevada under different names. Between these chains which surround the province on three sides, spreads a large valley intersected by the Guadalquivir, which rises at the foot of the Sierra

Nevada: this valley has in some parts a rich soil, and partly consists of barren heaths covered with lavander, rosmary, and oleander. Besides the Guadalquivir, there are the Guadalimar, the Escobar, and the Guadiana, tributary rivers of the former. In the plains there is not much wood; but in the Sierra there are forests into which an axe has never entered. The rearing of cattle and sheep is a principal branch of industry; but the wool is not so fine as that of Cordova. Jaen is the chief town, and contains, according to Balbi, 19,000 inhabitants; others note the population so high as 27,500. Beautiful huertas surround the town, and produce an abundance of corn, oil, wine, and fine fruit.—Andujar with 14,088 inhabitants, on the Guadalquivir, possesses a particular branch of industry in the fabrication of earthen jugs, which are made of a kind of white clay found in the neighbourhood. The Sierra Morena was till the middle of the 18th century a complete wilderness, inhabited by boars, wolves, &c. Count Olivarez in 1767, planted a colony, consisting of 10,400 foreign settlers, in this desert country: but want, sickness, and the political fall of the founder of the settlement hurt it much; however, new settlers joined them again, and in 1797 there were 6,190 in the whole colony, and this number is said to have increased of late. Carolina is the chief town, and contains 4,050 inhabitants.—Las Navas de Tolosa is a large barren place in the mountains, on which stands a ruined castle, remarkable for the great victory which the Spaniards obtained in its neighbourhood, over the Moors on the 16th of July 1212.

22*d*. *The Province of Granada.*] The coast land of Andalusia is throughout mountainous, with beautiful valleys between the mountains. The Vega de Granada is described as one of the most charming countries of Europe. Through the midst of the province runs the highest chain of Spain, the Sierra Nevada, of which the summits are covered with eternal snow. Its southern part is called the Alpujarras. In the N. E. runs the Sierra de Gador; and in the W. the Sierra Bermeja and the Sierra Ronda. The whole Eastern part is covered with branches of the Iberian chain, which runs out into the sea in the Cabo de Gata. In the North is the Sierra de Huescar and several other ridges. The rivers are mere coasting rivers, except the Xenil and the Guadin, both tributary rivers of the Guadalquivir. Among the coasting rivers the most considerable are the Guadiaro and the Almeria. The climate is hot on the coast, and exposed to the solano; however, the frequent sea and land-breezes cool the air; and in the central districts, the vicinity of the mountains covered with snow moderates the heat. In general there is a continual spring interrupted for a short time by a very intense heat. The air is healthy. During the domination of the Moors, this district was considered the richest and most flourishing in Spain. Even now some traces of Moorish industry may be perceived, though the baneful influence of the aristocracy and priesthood has prevailed for ages in this beautiful country. The fields are divided into huertas and Serranas; but only eight months' supply of corn is raised. Chesnuts and a species of edible acorn, of which 50,000 cwt. are annually gathered in this province, make up the deficiency of food. The flax and hemp are particularly good; but the principal production is wine. Above 30 different kinds of grapes are grown around Malaga, from which the excellent wines of Pierro Muscatel, and Pedro Ximenes are made. Besides wine, Malaga annually exports 100,000 cwt. of dry raisins; and the fruits of the South, as oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and figs, are grown in the greatest abundance, and of the finest

quality here. There are whole forests of olive-trees; the sugar-cane also grows in several districts. Silk was formerly extensively produced in this province, and it is still considered the best in Spain, and for the greatest part exported raw. Game in abundance and monkeys are found in the Sierra de Ronda. There is a considerable fishery of tunnies and sardines on the coast, and a great quantity of cantharides or Spanish flies, are collected here for exportation. The mountains contain very valuable metals and minerals, of which little use is made. In the Sierra de Raxa, are 117 lead-mines, of which only 60 have been wrought; there are others in the Sierra de Gador, and the Sierra de Luxar. The silver-mines are not wrought at all; and the iron-mines very imperfectly. The finest species of marble exist here. The Sierra de Gador, which rises 2,600 varas above the sea, is a single enormous block of marble; and the Sierra de Filabres, between Almeria, Granada, and Guadin, consists of a single ridge or bank of white marble, 2,000 feet high, without any admixture of stone or earth. Beautiful alabaster, and many precious stones, as cornelians, jasper, and garnet, are found here. The inhabitants have the character of being more deceitful and thievish than any other community of their countrymen, and are not held in good estimation by the Spanish themselves. Of the descendants of the Moors who yet live here, most have embraced the Catholic faith, and are more fanatical than the Spanish themselves. There are some families, however, it is said, particularly in the Alpujarras, who are still secretly attached to the doctrines of the Koran. There are 18 cividades, 180 villas, 155 villages, 490 parishes, 99 monasteries, 48 nunneries, and 48 establishments of charity in this province.

City of Granada.] This city, the capital of the province, has frequently been celebrated as the most beautiful in Spain. It is situated partly in a valley, and partly upon four hills. The number of inhabitants is said to be at present about 80,000; but in 1311 it contained 280,000 inhabitants. The houses are almost all built in the Moorish taste, with flat roofs, balconies, and turrets. The cathedral and convents contain many good pictures chiefly by Spanish artists. In the former the attention of the traveller is directed towards the tombs of Ferdinand and Isabella, and several other splendid monuments. Granada contains a palace begun by Charles V. but not yet finished, and another still more remarkable, as it was built by the Moors and exhibits the utmost elegance of Moorish architecture.[9] There are 25 parochial churches, 17 chapels, 43

[9] A minute account of this singularly magnificent building may not be unacceptable. It is called *Alhambra*,—a name said to denote 'the red house,' and expressive of the colour of the materials of which it is built. Externally its appearance is uncouth, presenting a vast and irregular collection of buildings, consisting of something like gravel and pebbles, covered with a very coarse kind of plaster. "On my first visit," says Swinburne, "I confess I was struck with amazement, as I stept over the threshold, to find myself on a sudden transported into a species of fairy land. The first place you come to is the court called the *communa*, or *del mesucar*, that is, the common baths; an oblong square, with a deep basin of clear water in the middle; two flights of marble steps leading down to the bottom; on each side a parterre of flowers, and a row of orange trees. Round the court runs a peristyle paved with marble; the arches bear upon very slight pillars, in proportion and style different from all the regular orders of architecture. The ceilings and walls are incrustated with fretwork in stucco, so minute and intricate, that the most patient draughtsman would find it difficult to follow it, unless he made himself master of the general plan. This would facilitate the operation exceedingly; for all this work is frequently and regularly repeated, at certain distances, and has been executed by means of square moulds applied successively, and the parts joined together with the utmost nicety. In every division are Arabic sentences of different lengths, most of them expressive of the following meanings: 'There is no conqueror but God;' or, 'Obedience and honour to our Lord Abouabdoulah.' The ceilings are gilt or painted, and time has caused no diminution

convents, and 9 hospitals in this city. The university was founded in 1526. Several beautiful public walks, and the most charming Huertas, enliven the town and its environs. Granada was the birth-place of the poets Diego de Mendoza, and Luis de Leon, and of the painter Pedro de Moya.

in the freshness of their colours, though constantly exposed to the air. The lower part of the walls is mosaic, disposed in fantastic knots and festoons. A work so novel, so exquisitely finished, and so different from all that he has ever seen, must afford a stranger the most agreeable sensations, while he treads this magic ground. The porches at the ends are more like grotto work than any thing else to which they can be compared. That on the right hand opens into an octagon vault, under the emperor's palace, and forms a perfect whispering gallery, meant to be a communication between the offices of both houses.

" Opposite to the door of the *communa* through which you enter, is another, leading into the *quarto de los leones*, or apartment of the lions; which is an oblong court, 100 feet in length and 50 in breadth, environed with a colonnade, 7 feet broad on the sides, and 10 at the end. Two porticos or cabinets, about 15 feet square, project into the court at the two extremities. The square is paved with coloured tiles; the colonnade with white marble. The walls are covered 5 feet up from the ground with blue and yellow tiles, disposed chequerwise. Above and below is a border of small escutcheons, enamelled blue and gold, with an Arabic motto on a bend, signifying, ' No conqueror but God.' The columns that support the roof and gallery are of white marble, very slender, and particularly adorned. They are 9 feet high, including base and capital, and 8½ inches diameter. They are very irregularly placed; sometimes singly, at others in groups of three, but more frequently two together. The width of the horse-shoe arches above them is four feet two inches for the larger ones, and three for the smaller. The ceiling of the portico is finished in a much finer and more complicated manner than that of the *communa*, and the stucco laid on the walls with inimitable delicacy; in the ceiling it is so inimitably fronted and handled as to exceed belief. The capitals are of various designs, though each design is repeated several times in the circumference of the court; but not the least attention has been paid to place them regularly or opposite to each other. Not the smallest representation of animal life can be discovered amidst the various foliages, grotesques, and strange ornaments. About each arch is a large square of arabesques, surrounded with a rim of characters, that are generally quotations from the Koran. Over the pillars is another square of delightful filligree-work. Higher up is a wooden rim or kind of cornice, as much enriched with carving as the stucco that covers the part underneath. Over this projects a roof of red tiles, the only thing that disfigures this beautiful square. This ugly covering is modern, put on by order of Mr Wall, the late prime-minister, who a few years ago gave the Alhambra a thorough repair. In Moorish times, the building was covered with large painted and glazed tiles, of which some few are still to be seen. In the centre of the court are twelve ill made lions muzzled, their fore parts smooth, their hind parts rough, which bear upon their backs an enormous basin, out of which a lesser rises. While the pipes were kept in good order, a great volume of water was thrown up, that, falling down into the basins, passed through the beasts, and issued out of their mouths into a large reservoir, where it communicated by channels with the jet d'eaus in the apartments. This fountain is of white marble, embellished with many festoons and Arabic distiches, thus translated:

' Seest thou not how the water flows copiously like the Nile?'

' This resembles a sea washing over its shores, threatening shipwreck to the mariner.'

' This water runs abundantly, to give drink to the lions.'

' Terrible as the lion is our king in the day of battle.'

' The Nile gives glory to the king, and the lofty mountains proclaim it.'

' This garden is fertile in delights: God takes care that no noxious animal shall approach it.'

' The fair princess that walks in this garden, covered with pearls, augments its beauty so much, that thou mayest doubt whether it be a fountain that flows, or the tears of her admirers.' " Passing along the colonnade, and keeping on the south side, you come to a circular room, used by the men as a place for drinking coffee and sherbet. A fountain in the middle refreshed the apartment in summer. The form of this hall, the elegance of its cupola, the cheerful distribution of light from above, and the exquisite manner in which the stucco is designed, painted, and finished, exceed all powers of description. Every thing in it inspires the most pleasing, voluptuous ideas; yet in this sweet retreat they pretend that Abouabdoulah assembled the Abencerrages, and caused their heads to be struck off into the fountains.

" Continuing your walk round, you are next brought to a couple of rooms, at the head of the court, which are supposed to have been tribunals, or audience chambers.

" Opposite to the *Sala de los Abencerrages*, is the entrance into the *Torre de las dos Hermanus*, or the tower of the two sisters; so named from two very beautiful pieces of

Chief Towns.] Malaga, with 52,376 inhabitants, possesses a large and safe harbour, and is the staple place for the commerce of the whole province. Townshend reckoned the amount of exports from the port of Malaga at £375,000; others have rated it at 2,500,000 piastres, and the importation at 1,300,000 piastres. The fertility of the neighbouring

marble laid as flags in the pavement. This gate exceeds all the rest in profusion of ornaments, and in beauty of prospect, which it affords through a range of apartments, where a multitude of arches terminate in a large window open to the country. In a gleam of sunshine, the variety of tints and lights thrown upon this enfilade are uncommonly rich. The first hall is the concert-room, where the women sat; and the musicians played above in four balconies. In the middle is a jet d'eau. The marble pavement is equal to the finest existing, for the size of the flags and evenness of the colour. The two sisters, which gave name to the room, are slabs that measure 15 feet by 7½, without flaw or stain. The walls, up to a certain height, are mosaic, and above are divided into very neat compartments of stucco, all of one design, which is also followed in many of the adjacent halls and galleries. The ceiling is a fretted cove. To preserve this vaulted roof, as well as some of the other principal cupolas, the outward walls of the towers are raised 10 feet above the top of the dome, and support another roof over all, by which means no damage can be caused by wet weather, or excessive heat and cold. From this hall you pass round the little myrtle garden of Lindaraxa, into an additional building made to the east end by Charles V. The rooms are small and low. His dear motto, *Plus Outre*, appears on every beam. This leads to a little tower projecting from the line of the north wall, called *El Tocador*, or the dressing room of the Sultana. It is a small square cabinet, in the middle of an open gallery, from which it receives light by a door and three windows. The look-out is charming. In one corner is a large marble flag, drilled full of holes, through which the smoke of perfumes ascended from furnaces below; and here, it is presumed, the Moorish queen was wont to sit, to fumigate and sweeten her person. The emperor caused this pretty room to be painted with representations of his wars, and a great variety of grotesques, which appear to be copies, or at least imitations of those in the lobby of the Vatican. From hence you go through a long passage to the hall of ambassadors, which is magnificently decorated with innumerable varieties of mosaics, and the mottos of all the kings of Granada. This long narrow antichamber opens into the *communa* on the left hand, and on the right into the great audience hall in the tower of Comares; a noble apartment, 36 feet square, 36 high, up to the cornice, and 18 from thence to the centre of the cupola. The walls on three sides are 15 feet thick, on the other, 9 feet; the lower range of windows, 13 feet high. The whole is inlaid with mosaic of many colours, disposed in intricate knots, stars, and other figures. In every part various Arabic sentences are repeated.

"Having thus completed the tour of the upper apartments, which are upon a level with the offices of the new palace, you descend to the lower floor, which consisted of bedchambers and summer-rooms: the backstairs and passages, that facilitate the intercourse between them, are without number. The most remarkable room below is the king's bedchamber, which communicated, by means of a gallery, with the upper story. The beds were placed in two alcoves, upon a raised pavement of blue and white tiles; but as it was repaired by Philip V., who passed some time here, it cannot be said how it may have been in former times. A fountain played in the middle, to refresh the apartment in hot weather. Behind the alcoves are small doors, that conduct you to the royal baths. These consist of one small closet, with marble cisterns for washing children, two rooms for grown up persons, and vaults for boilers and furnaces, that supplied the baths with water, and the stoves with vapours. The troughs are formed of large slabs of white marble; the walls are beautified with party-coloured earthenware; light is admitted by holes in the coved ceiling.

"Hard by is a whispering gallery, and a kind of labyrinth, said to have been made for the diversion of the women and children. One of the passages of communication is fenced off with a strong iron grate, and called *the prison of the Sultana;* but it seems more probable that it was put up to prevent any person from climbing up into the women's quarter.

"Under the council-room is a long slip, called *the king's study;* and adjoining to it are several vaults, said to be the place of burial of the royal family. In the year 1574, four sepulchres were opened, but, as they contained nothing but bones and ashes, were immediately closed again.

"This description of the Alhambra may be finished by observing how admirably every thing was planned and calculated for rendering this place the most voluptuous of all retirements; what plentiful supplies of water were brought to refresh it in the hot months of summer; what a free circulation of air was contrived, by the judicious disposition of doors and windows; what shady gardens of aromatic trees; what noble views over the beautiful hills, and fertile plains! No wonder the Moors regretted Granada; no wonder they still offer up prayers to God every Friday for the recovery of this city which they esteem a terrestrial paradise!"

country is very great, and the climate is extremely mild; but this town has been several times ravaged by the yellow fever, which, in 1804, carried off 22,000 persons in eight months.—Uxijar, in the valley of the Alpujarra between the coast and the Sierra Nevada, contains 1,600 inhabitants. The population of this valley are descendants of the Moors, and in general much more industrious than the rest of the inhabitants, though they are more loaded with taxes.—Almeria, on the gulf of the same name, formed by the Cabo de Gata, contains 7,200 inhabitants.—Antequera, a town with 14,000 inhabitants, Cortambert says 19,000, possesses some manufactures, and conducts a considerable commerce in wool.—Alboran, an uninhabited island in the Mediterranean, nearer the coast of Africa perhaps than that of Europe, belongs to this province. It contains some fertile valleys, but the dread of pirates prevents any settlement upon it. *

23*d*. *The Province of Murcia.*] In the N.E. a large ridge of mountains runs into this province, and terminates towards the S.E. in the Cape Palos. The mountains belong to the Iberian chain, of which a part takes the name of Sierra de Segura, the *Montes Orospedani* of the ancients. The E. and N.E. are covered with thick forests. The principal river—to which the province chiefly owes its beauty and riches—is the Segura; the tributary rivers are the Mundo, the Moratalla, and the Sangonera, but a great want of water is felt in this beautiful country. The climate is hot and dry, but delicious; an eternal spring seems to spread over the fields, and the horizon is always clear from clouds and mist. The Huertas alone are cultivated; the mountainous parts are quite barren, and on those lands between the sea and the Segura nothing is produced but soda plants. Perhaps not above one-fifth of the superficial surface of this province is cultivated: yet this small part furnishes more corn than is needed for the consumption. The inhabitants are a good-natured but excessively lazy race of people. There are 5 cividades, 64 villas, 38 villages, 101 parishes, 69 monasteries, 23 nunneries, and 14 establishments of charity in this province. The chief town is Murcia, on the Segura, with 35,000 inhabitants.—Cartagena, (*Carthago Nova*) with 37,000 inhabitants, is one of the principal sea-ports of Spain. The Spanish marine department, and a part of the navy are stationed here. This province was dreadfully devastated by an earthquake which occurred here on the 21st of March 1829.

" Palace of beauty! where the Moorish lord,
King of the bow, the bridle, and the sword,
Sat like a genie in the diamond's blaze,
Oh, to have seen thee in the ancient days!"
* * * * *
Where are thy pomps, Alhambra, earthly sun,
That had no rival, and no second?—gone!
Thy glory down the arch of time has roll'd
Like the great day-star to the ocean dim;
The billows of the Ages o'er thee swim,
Gloomy and fathomless. Thy tale is told!
Where is thy horn of battle, that but blown,
Brought every chief of Afric from his throne,—
Brought every spear of Afric from the wall,—
Brought every charger barbed from the stall,—
Till all the tribes sat mounted on the shore,
Waiting the waving of thy torch to pour
The living deluge on the field of Spain?
Queen of earth's loveliness, there was a stain
Upon thy brow,—the stain of guilt and gore;
Thy cause was bright, bold, treacherous,—and 'tis o'er,
The spear and diadem are from thee gone;
Silence is now sole monarch on thy throne!"

CHAP. VII.—THE KINGDOM OF ARRAGON.

The crown of Arragon was possessed by Ferdinand the Catholic, and united by his marriage with Isabella to that of Castile. It is divided into 4 provinces, presenting a total superficial extent of about 38,300 square miles.

1*st. The Province of Arragon.*] The surface of this province is mountainous, but intersected with large and narrow valleys. The soil is fertile where sufficiently watered, and sterile where water is wanting. In the chain of mountains forming the boundaries between France and Spain, several of the principal rivers of the country have their source. The Sierra de Alcubiere on the N., and the Sierra de la Mucla on the W., mountains detached from the Pyrenees, send their streams to the Ebro. The principal tributary rivers of the Ebro are the Xalon, the Arva, and the Gallego. The Ebro is navigable throughout the whole of the province, and the communication is facilitated by the Imperial canal running on the right side of the river from Tudela to Saragossa. The Guadalaviar, or Turia, rises in this province, and receives the Alhambra. There is one lake, or rather a large swamp, the Lago de Gallocante, in this country. The climate is rather cold than hot; in summer violent thunder-storms are of frequent occurrence, and in winter tempests; but the air is pure, and the soil is covered with a fresher verdure than in the rest of Spain. The poverty of the peasants is the greatest obstacle to agriculture; nevertheless, more corn is produced than the consumption demands, and also a great quantity of vegetables, flax, and hemp. The fruit is excellent, and wine is produced to a great extent, of which several kinds are reckoned very good: as the red Grenache, and the white Aula dei. There was a mine of cobalt in the valley of Gistau, which produced 500 cwt. of that mineral in a year, but it is no longer wrought. The commerce with France is insignificant, as there is no great road over the Pyrenees; but smuggling is carried on to a considerable extent. The inhabitants are strong and well-made; their manners are civil, and their character bold, proud, firm, and courageous. Their dialect, which was originally very rude, has been gradually and entirely blended with the Castilian. There are 12 cividades, 239 villas, 999 villages, 1,396 parishes, 171 monasteries, 64 nunneries, and 23 establishments of charity in Arragon. But, in 1787, there were 149 entirely ruined places, and 385 almost depopulated; and probably this number was considerably increased during the war of Revolution, in which Arragon suffered so much.

Town of Saragossa.] Saragossa, the capital of Arragon, is situated upon the Ebro, which bathes its walls and separates it from the suburbs. It stands in an open plain, covered with olive grounds, and bounded on both sides with high and distant mountains; but it is commanded by a high ground called the Torrero, about a mile to the S.W. upon which there is a convent and some smaller buildings. The Ebro has two bridges within musket-shot of each other, one of wood, and another of freestone. The river is fordable above the bridges. The city has neither aqueduct nor fountains, but derives its water wholly from the river, which is of a dirty red colour, but becomes perfectly clear after standing a few hours. By the census of 1787, its population was stated at 42,000; Balbi states it at 45,000, and other accounts make it 60,000. It has 12 gates; and all the houses, including the convents and churches, are built of brick. The houses

are in general three stories high; and its streets narrow and crooked. The inhabitants, like the rest of the Arragonese, have always been distinguished for their love of liberty; but were held in peculiar contempt by the French, who characterized them as the dullest and most languid of all the Spanish nation. Nevertheless, Saragossa made itself infinitely more famous by the heroism of her citizens during the Peninsular war, than by all the miracles said and believed to have been wrought in it.[10] There is a university here

[10] In 1808, when an insurrection took place in Spain, on account of Buonaparte having seized the royal family, and conferred the crown upon his brother, Saragossa was among the first to dare the tyrant's power, and was the first that felt the fury of his vengeance. Marshal Le Febvre was sent against the place with 8000 infantry and 900 horse. On the 15th of July the French attempted to storm the place, and a desperate conflict ensued, in which the inhabitants fought with a spirit worthy of their cause, though any one gave orders who felt himself competent to take the command. Le Febvre seeing the attempt hopeless, drew off his troops with the loss of 6000 killed and wounded, and abandoned his baggage and plunder; the townsmen had 2000 killed, and as many wounded, and would have pursued the enemy, but were restrained by the prudence of Palafox, their brave governor. Le Febvre had only retired to obtain reinforcements, and soon presented himself again before the mud walls of Saragossa. Palafox had in the meantime obtained about 1400 soldiers who had fled from Madrid, and a few militia. With this small band he ventured to attack Le Febvre; but, after a most obstinate contest, was compelled to yield to the superior numbers, arms, and discipline of the enemy, and with great difficulty got back into Saragossa. The besiegers being now supplied with a battering train, attacked the city and the Torrero, but were again repulsed with the loss of 800 men killed. The attack was renewed next morning; and though repulsed from the city with the loss of almost all their cavalry, they obtained possession of the Torrero. The city was then bombarded with shells and grenades from this position. There was not a building that was bomb-proof within the walls; but the citizens tore down the awnings from their windows, and made them into bags, which they filled with sand and piled up before the gates in the form of a battery; they also broke holes for musquetry in the mud walls and intermediate buildings, and stationed cannon where the position was favourable. In these preparations women of all ranks assisted, and formed themselves into companies to relieve the wounded, and carry water and provisions to their defenders. The Countess Burretta, a lady of great rank —young, delicate, and beautiful—instituted a corps for this purpose, and in the midst of the most tremendous fire of shot and shells, was seen coolly attending to those occupations which were now become her duty; and never flinched from her heroic purpose during the whole siege of two months. Some of the monks bore arms, others exercised their spiritual offices to the dying, others, with the nuns, were busied in making cartridges, which were distributed by the children. On the night of the 28th, the powder magazine blew up, and, while the citizens were employed in digging out the bodies from the ruins, a tremendous fire from mortars, howitzers, and cannon, was opened upon them, and the enemy appeared at the gates. The carnage during this attack was horrible. The sand-bag battery before one of the gates was frequently destroyed, and as frequently re-constructed under the fire of the enemy. Augustina Zaragoza, a handsome woman of the lower class, about 22 years of age, arrived at the battery with refreshments at the moment when not a man who defended it was left alive, so tremendous was the fire which the French kept up upon it: for a moment, the citizens hesitated to re-man the guns; but Augustina sprung forwards over the dead and dying, —snatched a match from the hand of a dead artilleryman,—fired off a 26 pounder,—and leaping upon the gun made a solemn vow never to quit it alive during the siege. Animated by this heroine, the Saragossans rushed into the battery, renewed their fire with greater vigour than ever, and repulsed the enemy at every point with great slaughter. On the 11th of August the enemy obtained the passage of the ford a little above the town, and constructed a floating briage, over which they transported their cavalry on the 14th, and by this means commanded the surrounding country, and cut off all communication with the city. These new difficulties only called forth new resources in this admirable people and their governor, a man worthy of commanding such a people in such times. Corn mills, wrought by horses, were erected in the city; and the monks were employed in manufacturing gunpowder, the materials for which they obtained by collecting all the sulphur in the place, washing the soil of the streets to extract its nitre, and preparing charcoal from the stalks of hemp. On the night of the 2d of September the city was again bombarded; and a foundling hospital, now filled with the sick and wounded, took fire and was rapidly consumed, notwithstanding every exertion was made to rescue the helpless victims from the flames. On the 3d, the enemy's batteries were completed, within pistol-shot of the church and convent of St Engracia; and on the 4th they were opened. The mud walls were levelled at the first discharge, and the besiegers, rushing through the opening, took the batteries before the adjacent gates in reverse,—forced their way after a dreadful carnage and contest to the very

which was founded in 1474; and two public libraries. The Imperial canal makes Saragossa a staple place for the commerce of Arragon and Navarre.

Chief Towns.] At Calatayud, a town of 9,000 inhabitants, excellent hemp is grown. In the neighbourhood are the ruins of the ancient *Bilbilis*, the birth-place of Martial.—Huesca, with 6,800 inhabitants, con-

heart of the city,—and, before the close of day, were in possession of one-half of Saragossa. Le Febvre now believed that he had won the city, and required Palafox to surrender, in a note containing only these words: "Headquarters, St Engracia—Capitulation." To which the heroic Spaniard immediately returned this reply: "Headquarters, Saragossa—War at the knife's point." The contest which was now carried on is unexampled in history. One side of the Cozo, a street as broad as Pall Mall, was possessed by the French, and another by the Saragossans; batteries were opened on the opposite openings of the street, and the intervening space was presently heaped with dead, either slain upon the spot, or thrown out at the windows. Next day the governor's brother entered the place with a force of 3000 Spanish guards, Swiss, and volunteers. The war was now continued from street to street, from house to house, and from room to room. For eleven successive days and nights, this most obstinate and murderous contest was carried on. Under cover of the darkness, the combatants frequently dashed across the street to attack each other's batteries; and the battles which began there were often carried into the houses beyond, where they fought from room to room, and from floor to floor. The hostile batteries were so near each other, that a Spaniard, in one place, made way under cover of the dead bodies, which completely filled the space between them, and fastened a rope to one of the French cannons. In the struggle which ensued, the rope broke, and the Saragossans lost their prize at the very moment when they thought themselves masters of it. The citizens gained ground upon the enemy in every conflict, till what the enemy possessed of the city was reduced to an eighth part, and at last, under cover of a most heavy and destructive fire during the night, the French were seen, on the morning of the 16th, retreating in the direction of Pampeluna.

After the battle of Tudela, so disastrous to the Spanish patriots, the French were left at full liberty to resume the siege of Saragossa. Palafox had previously sent away all the French who resided in the place, both in order to prevent treachery, and a general massacre of these unfortunate people, which was to be feared from the indignant rage of the inhabitants at the remembrance of their former sufferings in the late sanguinary siege. All prisoners and deserters from the enemy were also dismissed, and all the women, the men above threescore, and boys not able to carry cartridges. But the rapid advance of the French prevented the full execution of these orders.

The French commanded by marshal Moncey, appeared before the city on the 27th of November 1808, and took possession of some heights and monasteries in its neighbourhood. An immense quantity of mortars, bombs, and howitzers of every calibre, were brought by general Dedon from Pampeluna; and Lacoste, the general of the engineers, one of Buonaparte's aids-de-camp, collected instruments of every kind for mining. In the mean time, Moncey proposed an offer of capitulation to Palafox, who answered it thus: "Talk of capitulation when I am dead." The Countess Burretta again enrolled herself with 300 women of all ranks to assist those who worked at the batteries. On the 20th of December, the French made a general attack on the side where Moncey commanded in person. They won the Torrero, a post untenable from its situation against superior numbers, and also the Casa Bianca, and the battery of Buenavista. The Spaniards, however, by blowing up the bridge, made good their retreat. On the other side of the river, seven columns of infantry, supported by a large body of horse, attempted to win the suburbs, but were repulsed after an action of five hours, with the loss of 4000 men.

In the beginning of January, Moncey was superseded by Junot, whom the convention of Cintra had rescued from the punishment due to his crimes. The bombardment began on the 10th, and the monastery of San Joseph and the bridge de la Huerba were won by the enemy, whose superior numbers were now aided by the progress of pestilence among the besieged. Mortier and Junot conducted the siege; St Cyr and Suchet, with their respective armies covered it; yet, as if these were not sufficient, Lannes, duke of Montebello,—who was shortly afterwards killed at the sanguinary battle of Asperne on the Danube—was sent to accelerate the operations against this little town. Three companies of miners and eight companies of sappers carried on a subterranean war, destroying house by house, and street by street, and in 48 hours, 6000 bombs were thrown in, and two-thirds of the city laid in ruins. The besieged's stock of powder was at length exhausted; they had none but what they manufactured day by day, and no other cannon balls than those which were shot into the town, which they collected and fired back upon the enemy. The enemy effected their first lodgment within the wall on the 27th of January; but every inch of ground was purchased dearly, and it was only by mining, against which courage is of no avail, that

tains a university, founded in 1384, and two colleges.—Balbastro, with 6,000 inhabitants, has some tanneries and leather-manufacturies.

2d. The Province of Valencia.] In 1787 the population of this province was 825,059, and, in 1808, Antillon and Rehfues state it to have been about 1,200,000. The greatest part of Valencia is mountainous. The plains stretch along the coast, which, in the S. is bordered with cliffs and rocks, and in the N. and beyond the Cabo San Antonio, is flat and full of sandbanks, among which the large Laguna of Albufera is situated. The soil consists partly of clay mixed with sand called *roxelet*, and partly of lime and chalk called *albaris;* the first is predominant in the plains which are of a luxurious fertility, and the latter in the mountainous parts. The mountains belong to the Iberian chain, which runs here into the sea in the promontories of Oropesa, Antonio, Martin, Pola, and Cervera. The principal ridges are the Sierra de Espadan in the N., the Monte Pennaglosa on the boundaries of Arragon, the Sierra Pirochera, and the Sierra de Meriola. All these mountains are steep and of a wild appearance; but there is seldom much snow upon them, and a few are covered with wood. The principal rivers are the Guadalaviar and the Xucar. The climate is very delicious, and the temperature is refreshed by sea-breezes. The heat in summer is seldom above 17 or 18° R.; and in winter the temperature is from 7 to 13° R. Hoar frost and mist are very uncommon, and there are scarcely 18 or 20 rainy days the whole year. The Solano and earthquakes, however, sometimes visit this paradise, and myriads of insects annoy the inhabitants during the summer. Agriculture is well-conducted here. The lands are divided into Huertas and Serranas. Wheat, Indian corn, and barley, are grown; but the province does not produce sufficient grain for its own consumption, notwithstanding that chesnuts, rice, and algarrobas, are used as substitutes for bread. The finest vegetables are grown in great quantities here; and among the wines of this province, are the white and red Alicant, the strong Benicarlo, the Vino de la Torre, and the Cartuxo. Brandy is exported into France. The sugar-cane is grown around Gandia, but the fresh juice only is made use of. Silk is grown in considerable quantity; but the management of this article is not well understood. Near Pinnosa there is a whole rock of mineral salt, but it is not made use of, as there are many rich salt-springs, three of which annually yielded 300,000 cwt., and could produce a great deal more. The inhabitants are a cheerful, spirited, and active race; but somewhat fickle in temper, and not always to be trusted. The language is a peculiar dialect, kindred to that of Catalonia. There are 9 cividades, 161 villas,

the enemy gained ground in the city, which was crowded with soldiers from all parts of the Peninsula. There was now no respite by night or by day for this devoted city. By day it was involved in a red sulphureous atmosphere of smoke which hid the face of heaven; by night, the fire of cannons and mortars, and the flames of burning houses, kept it in a state of terrific illumination. On the 30th of January, the French forced their way into the church of our Lady of the Pillar; here every column, every altar, and every chapel became a point of defence, and was attacked, taken, and retaken, until the pavement was soaked with blood, and the aisles and body of the church were choaked with the dead. In the midst of this conflict, the roof shattered by repeated bombs, fell in; but the few who were not crushed by its descent, after a momentary pause, renewed the combat with fresh fury. At length, more than two-thirds of the city being in ruins,—the ammunition all spent,—the garrison reduced to 2,832 men fit for service, and 16,000 lying in the hospitals,—and all prospect of relief being annihilated,—the city capitulated upon the 21st of February, upon terms which were violated the moment the enemy obtained possession of the place. More than 30,000 men, the flower of the Spanish armies, were buried beneath the ruins of Saragossa, besides 600 women and children, who fell by the bayonet or the bullet in that ever memorable and virtuous defence. The French loss was carefully concealed.

378 villages, 562 parishes, 171 monasteries, 54 nunneries, and 39 establishments of charity in this province.

Chief Towns.] Valencia is the chief town. Antillon assigns 100,000 inhabitants to this city, Fischer and Cavanilles 105,000; Cortambert 80,000, and Balbi only 66,000. It is situated upon the Gaudalaviar, which is here about 100 yards broad. The adjoining country is in the highest state of cultivation. It is surrounded with ramparts, whose walls are entire and well-preserved; but the citadel is useless, being very poorly fortified, and not even commanding the town. It has eight gates, and five fauxbourgs or suburbs; and is the see of an archbishop, whose revenue amounts to £34,375 sterling annually. The number of regular and secular clergy is very great, being no less than 2,610 persons. The cathedral is of great antiquity, and has undergone many changes, having been a pagan temple under the Romans,—a church under the Goths,—a mosque under the Moors,—being re-converted into a Christian temple dedicated to St Paul after Valencia was conquered by the Cid in 1094;—again turned into a Mohammedan mosque upon its re-capture by the Moors in 1100;—and again converted into a Romish cathedral by Jayme, king of Arragon, in 1230, the era of its final conquest by the Christians.—The commerce of this city was recently very extensive; the value of its foreign and interior commerce amounting annually to £773,416 sterling, besides its exportation of silk, wrought and raw, amounting to £1,875,000 sterling, at a moderate calculation, and employing 22,000 hands. The royal palace, the exchange, and the theatre are fine public buildings; and no town in Spain has so many fondas and neverias, bottellarias and coffee-houses,—so many theatres, concerts, balls, rifrescos and tertullias. The environs form a delicious garden, the air of which is continually loaded with perfumes. Valencia was the birth place of the lawyer Mayans, of the celebrated Ant. Jos. Cavanilles, and of several renowned painters, as Espinosa, and Francisco Bibalta.—Murviedro with 6,810 inhabitants is celebrated for its wine manufactories.—San Felipe, or Xativa, on the Albayda, was the birth place of the celebrated painter Ribeiro commonly called Spannoletto.—Gandia is a neat town with 6,300 inhabitants, in the finest, mildest, and most fertile part of the province.—Alcoy on the river of the same name with 14,600 inhabitants, possesses a considerable paper manufactory, occupying 48 mills.—Alicant, on a bay formed by the promontories De las Huertas and San Pola, is a fortified town, forming a crescent around the citadel, which lies on a calcareous rock 1000 feet high. Balbi states its population at 25,000, Fischer at 20,000, and Cortambert at 17,500. It is a very animated commercial town; and the influx of foreigners here would be still greater if epidemical fevers were not so very common in Autumn. Most of the foreign powers have consuls here, and a great deal of business is carried on. The environs are covered with country houses.—Buzot in a romantic country, is celebrated for its bath of the temperature of 32° R. Orihuela with 20,000 inhabitants, is a wealthy town in a charming country, the seat of the bishop of Alicant.—At Elche, in latitude 38° 29', we find the *phœnix dactilifera*, and *chamærops humilis*, flourishing well. It is calculated that there are 35,000 fertile palm trees in the environs of the town, which produce 140,000 arrobes of dates annually. There are fine marble quarries on the little island of Plana, to the S.E. of the Cabo San Pola. The Columbretes are a group of islands off the Cabo de Oropesa.

3d. The Province of Mallorca or Majorca.] This province is an archipelago of three large and several small islands in the Mediterranean, opposite Valencia. The surface of the whole is about 1,860 square miles. The islanders are of middle size, but well-formed, with a clear complexion and dark hair. The women are not handsome, but upon the whole very pleasing. Their general character is very like that of their neighbours the Catalonians, whose dialect they speak, except at Minorca where Italian words are mixed with it. They no longer use the sling for which they were so famous in ancient times, but most of them are dexterous riflemen. Their dress is somewhat different from that generally used in Spain. There are only 3 cividades, 37 villas, 31 villages, 66 parishes, 32 monasteries, 19 nunneries, and 14 establishments of charity in the whole group. In very ancient times these islands were divided into two groups: namely the *Baleares*, by the Greeks also called *Gymnesiæ:* the first name indicating the skill of the inhabitants in managing the sling, and the latter their being naked, and the *Pithyusæ* which took their name from the number of fir-trees which grew upon them. Both groups of islands were consecutively in possession of the Greeks, Carthaginians, Romans, Vandals, Goths, and Arabs, till Jacob I., who reigned from 1229 to 1254, united them to the crown of Arragon.

Majorca.] Majorca or Mallorca, the principal of the Balearic isles, is about 100 miles from the coast of Spain, and 150 from Algiers. Its length is about 40 miles, and its breadth nearly the same; its population nearly 136,000, of whom 3,700 are priests, monks, or nuns Its figure is that of an irregular rhomboid, the angles being formed by the four principal capes, of Formentor to the N.; Pera to the E.; Salinas to the S.; and Dragonera to the W. It is almost surrounded by a chain of mountains, a branch of which penetrates towards the centre of the island. Its climate is in general temperate, the sea-breezes moderating the heat of summer, and the high grounds affording shelter in winter. There are a number of large brooks, which descend from the mountains, and two small rivers, one of which flows into the sea below the walls of Palma, the chief town of the island. Palma is a considerable city with a population of 30,000 inhabitants.—Alcudia has fallen into decay in consequence of its unwholesome air.—Pollenza is a town of 6000 inhabitants; Soller has 5000; San Marcial, 5000; Andrache 4000; and Bunnola 2,600. Agriculture is very unskilfully conducted, though the climate is mild and the soil fertile. Orange-trees produce fruit which rivals that of Portugal and Malta: the vines are loaded with grapes towards the end of June, and by the end of July the carob-tree produces a beautiful red fruit, forming a delightful landscape when mixed with the palm and plane-tree of the Indies. The exports consist of olive oil, wine, spirits, oranges, lemons, almonds, cheese, capers, and beans: amounting in all to about half-a-million sterling.—The island of Cabrera on the S. of Majorca has a good harbour.—Conejera, Foradade, and Plannas are small uninhabited islands to the N. of Cabrera.

Minorca.] Minorca, or Menorca, the second of the Balearic isles, is situated 37 miles E. of Majorca. Its form is oblong, extending from W.N.W. to E.S.E., but somewhat concave on the south side. It is intersected by the parallel of 40° N. Lat. Its area is 240 square miles. Its population 31,000. It is divided into four districts called *Terminos*, the chief towns of which, are Cuidadela the capital, Port Mahon, and Merca-

dal. The importance of the island is entirely owing to the valuable harbour of Port Mahon, in 39° 52′ 20″. Its surface is uneven; and the climate the least propitious of any of the Balearic islands.

Ivica.] Ivica, or Ibica, situated to the S.W. of Majorca, and the principal of the group called the *Pithyusæ*, contains 190 square miles, and 15,200 inhabitants. It is of considerable elevation, and full of mountains which present at sea a grand and agreeable picture. The climate is uncommonly mild. The soil highly fertile. Ivica, the capital, is well-fortified, and has an excellent harbour. The dialect is here intermixed with many Arabian words.—Formentera is a small island with 1,500 inhabitants. Espalmador, Trocados, and Espuntel are uninhabited islands.

4*th. The Province of Catalonia.*] The Pyrenees here run along the French boundaries, and spread their branches through the whole province. The best of the five roads leading into France here crosses the Pyrenees from Gerona by Junquera to Bellegarde and Perpignan; there are several other passes for mules and foot-passengers. All the branches of the principal mountains run from the N. to the S. of the province, under different denominations; in the E. is the Monseny; and in the S.W., along the Ebro, the Sierra de la Llena. In the centre between these rises Montserrat. No fewer than 26 rivers rise in these different mountains. The principal river is the Ebro which falls into the sea at Amposta. The subsidiary rivers are the Segre, the Noguera, the Palleresa, the Francoli, the Toldera, and the Ter. In the highlands the heat and cold are equally severe in their respective seasons; in the valleys, the summer and winter are temperate. In the interior of the country the air is dry, and near the coast it is damp; there the sky is clear, here it is clouded; there the weather is steady, here it is variable. The inhabitants have used every exertion to fertilize their soil which in some places is sterile, and irrigation is carefully attended to; nevertheless sufficient corn for the consumption of the province is not produced. Wine is a principal production. Catalonia is very rich in wines. It produces annually upwards of 600,000 pipes; from this quantity are made about 30,000 pipes of brandy, the rest is shipped off or consumed in the country. The Spaniards are excelled by their French neighbours in the distillation of wines into brandy, as much as in the making of wines. Spanish brandies are often foul, acrid, and taste of aniseed, which is liked in Spain and cannot be eradicated from their stills and casks. The exports are made from Barcelona, Salon, Tarragona, and Mataro. The red wines are very coarse, being most carelessly made and shipped off. These are the government contract-wines, well-known to the sailors of the British navy as *black strap*. The white wines of Catalonia are less exceptionable. The Malmsey of Sitges is highly spoken of. Fruit is excellent; but the climate is not warm enough for the general production of the finer kinds. Chesnuts and nuts are produced in great quantity, and oil in the warmer districts along the coast. There is wood in abundance in the northern mountains which also harbour bears and wolves. No province in Spain is equal in industry to Catalonia, which, before the war, possessed several manufactures in a state of prosperity unknown to the rest of Spain; but no Spanish province has suffered so much by the war,—none has been longer the theatre of the most destructive struggles,—and in none has the loss of the American colonies been more severely felt. The chief productions of industry here were cotton, paper, leather, and silk; but

these were not calculated for Spain, and still less for the rest of Europe: they were principally destined for the colonies. The Catalonians are distinguished by a degree of rudeness and violence of temper not common among their countrymen. They are enthusiastically attached to their country; and are an active, laborious, and enterprising race. Catalonia was one of the first provinces of Spain conquered by the Romans; and one of the last they lost. The Goths were expelled by the Moors; and these in their turn conquered by the Franks under Charlemagne; after which the province taking the name of Godolaunia, from the Goths and Alans its ancient inhabitants, preserved its laws, customs, and prerogatives, even when its rulers had mounted the throne of Arragon, and Ferdinand the Catholic had become master of the whole of Spain. It was only in 1714, when Catalonia ranked itself with the Austrian party, that most of its privileges were lost. There are 14 cividades, 283 towns, 1,683 villages, 1682 parishes, 201 monasteries, 54 nunneries, 81 establishments of charity, and 304 ruined places in this province.

City of Barcelona.] Barcelona, in Latin *Barcino*, is the capital of Catalonia, and one of the principal cities in Spain. It was founded by the Carthaginians who gave it the name of their renowned general, Annibal Barca; and it successively passed under the dominion of the Romans, Goths, Saracens, and French. It contains at present 10,000 houses, 1 cathedral, 82 churches, 50 convents of monks, 30 fountains, 6 hospitals, 1 seminary, 4 academies supported by voluntary contribution, 2 public libraries, a valuable cabinet of natural history and antiquities, a noble exchange 230 feet long by 77 broad, a theatre, a great many handsome promenades or walks, and with the suburb of Barcellonetta upwards of 140,000 inhabitants. It is the seat of an episcopal see, which contains in its diocese 26 chapels and 253 parishes. The streets of the old town are in general dirty, narrow, and crooked; those of the new town are regularly built and elegant. The city is fortified, and is impregnable on the sea-side, the water being too shallow to permit the approach of large ships. On the land-side it is guarded with bastions, the approaches to which are defended by many advanced works, and principally by a citadel situated at the N.E. point, and by the fort of Mont Jouy; which commands the town, port, citadel, neighbouring country, and sea to a great extent. The ancient port of Barcelona was on the other side of Mont Jouy, behind that mountain, which separated it from the sea, and was formed and sheltered by a mole built in 1477; but this port was choked up and the mole destroyed by storms in the 16th century. The present port is nothing more than a great basin formed by piers and kept up by solid quays. The depth is insensibly declining in spite of every endeavour to clear out the accumulating sand. Large ships cannot enter, and frigates cannot approach within half-a-league's distance; however, in spite of such inconveniencies, the harbour is always full of shipping. The manufactures are silk, cotton, wool, fire-arms, cutlery, and glass-ware. The principal exports are wine, brandy, cloth, and leather. The imports corn, fish, and woollen goods.

City of Gerona.] Gerona, in French *Gironc*, in Latin *Gerunda*, is a fortified town of Catalonia, situated on both banks of the river Ter; and upon the side; and at the foot of a steep mountain. It is of a triangular form; and its population amounts to 14,000 persons. This city is very ancient, having existed in the time of the Romans, from whom it

was taken by the Goths; the Moors seized it, in 715; and it was re-taken by Louis of Aquitania in 802 when all the Moors were put to death. It afterwards became subject to the crown of Arragon, and gave the title of prince to the king's eldest son. It was taken by the French in 1656, and lost again in 1694. In the Succession war, it was seized by the French, but recovered from them in 1705, by the Miquelets or Catalonian mountaineers. It was again taken by the French in 1711; and in the year following was besieged by the Asturians and Catalonians who were compelled to abandon the enterprise after a blockade of eight months. During the late glorious struggle for Spanish independence, it made one of the noblest defences recorded in history. The garrison consisted of 3,400 men; the besieging army of 17,000. Another army of 18,000 men covered the siege, which commenced on the 6th of May 1809, and continued till the 10th of December, when the garrison, reduced to a mere handful, obtained an honourable capitulation.

City of Tarragona.] Tarragona, the ancient *Tarraco* and capital of *Hispania Tarraconensis* under the Romans, is said to have been once the most considerable city in Spain, but has vastly declined from its ancient grandeur, containing only 9000 inhabitants at the commencement of the late war. It was besieged and taken, after a siege of two months, and an obstinate defence, by marshal Suchet, who perpetrated the most atrocious cruelties upon the wretched inhabitants ever recorded in history. The harbour is one of the best in Catalonia; and the environs are very charming and fertile. There are here the ruins of a palace of Augustus, an amphitheatre, a magnificent aqueduct and catacombs.

Chief Towns.] Reuss a town created in the last quarter of the 18th century, has already 30,000 inhabitants, and maintains some very animated silk-manufactories, and numerous distilleries.—Tortosa with 10,700 inhabitants, is strongly fortified; the neighbourhood is rich in alabaster and marble, of which the beautiful species called Jaspir of Tortosa is found here.—Lerida is a fortified town on the Segre with 16,800 inhabitants. It was here that Cæsar fought for the dominion of the world with Pompey's generals Afranius and Petreius.—Cervera with 5000 inhabitants, contains a university founded in 1717 with a magnificent library.—Montserrat, a convent of Benedictines, built on a calcareous rock 3,937 feet high, is remarkable for its celebrated image of the Virgin. Above the convent are 14 hermitages built above each other on the mountain. Numerous pilgrims visit the image of the virgin which is said to have been found here in 880. The Virgin of Montserrat has also churches at Madrid, Rome, and Vienna.

Republic of Andorra.] The Valle de Andorra at the foot of the Pyrenees in this province, has always been considered as a neutral territory, acknowledging the bishop of Urgel as spiritual chief, and paying him annually 480 franks; but since very ancient times it has stood under the protection of France, having sworn allegiance to him by deputies. The king of France and the bishop of Urgel name alternately the supreme judge of Andorra; but otherwise this little territory, not exceeding 180 square miles of surface, is an independent republic, in which the legislative and executive powers are exercised by a council. It has its particular laws, and pays no taxes. The population is about 10,500.

CHAP. VIII.—THE KINGDOM OF NAVARRE.

The kingdom of Navarre had in ancient times its own kings, who also held sway over considerable lands on the other side of the Pyrenees. In 1512 Ferdinand the Catholic conquered the Spanish part of Navarre, which was thereafter called *Upper Navarre* to distinguish it from the French part called *Lower Navarre.* But it was neither united to Arragon nor to Castile, and has therefore always been considered as a different kingdom. It lies close to the foot of the Pyrenees, from which the Sierra de Andia, the Bardenna del Rey, and the Higa de Monreal run into this country. The principal river is the Ebro which receives several tributary streams. The Bidassoa rises here and runs north into Guipuscoa. The climate is temperate and healthy; frequent rains refresh the air and preserve a beautiful verdure on the meadows and pastures during the whole year. Corn is extensively raised, and the wines are considered as being among the best in Spain. Oil is produced in the neighbourhood of Tudela and Tafalla, and also flax and hemp which are particularly good. The forests furnish timber and chesnuts. The rearing of cattle is considerable. The rivers have abundance of fish, and game is plentiful in the mountains, which are also inhabited by a particular kind of wild cat, standing 15 inches in height, and 30 inches long, which is very fierce and very destructive to the flocks. The commerce is animated; particularly that of transit and smuggling with France. Three roads lead across the Pyrenees in this province: viz. 1st. A very difficult road through the valley of Baztan, by Maya, to Bayonne, 2d. The Rolands road by the valley of Roncesvalles to Jean Pied de Port; and 3d. One by the valley of Aezcoa to Larun. The inhabitants are Basques and speak the Baskish language, they are a bold, vigorous race of men; distinguished by industry, skill, and spirited manners, but violent and quarrelsome in the extreme. In language, manners, and character they bear a strong likeness to the inhabitants of the Baskish provinces; but the early loss of their independence has effaced several of the national features of the ancient Cantabrians. There are 9 cividades, 159 towns, 630 villages, 763 parishes, 49 monasteries, 26 nunneries, and 14 establishments of charity in Navarre.

Chief Towns.] Pampeluna on the Agra is the chief town. Its population is 14,000.—Estella on the Ega in a fertile country, has 4,600 inhabitants, and some manufactures.—The valley of Roncesvalles, between the Pyrenees and one of their branches, the Montes de los Alduides, is celebrated as having been the scene of the battle in which Roland and twelve peers of France fell.

CHAP. IX.—THE BASKISH PROVINCES AND COLONIES.

The three provinces of Biscay, Guipuscoa, and Alava, on the northern coast of Spain, which formed the ancient *Cantabria* are now called the Baskish provinces. The population amounts to 310,758. The inhabitants speak a peculiar language, and differ in customs and manners from those of the rest of Spain. United since the 13th and 14th centuries to the crown of Castile, they nevertheless preserved their peculiar laws and provincial representation till within a very recent period. By

the ancient constitution, no bishop could establish his metropolitan seat in these provinces, and no taxes could be imposed upon the inhabitants. With these prerogatives, and the enjoyment of a country peculiarly favoured by nature, the inhabitants here became the most active, industrious, and wealthy in Spain; but a royal ordonnance of the 25th May 1805, deprived them of most of their ancient privileges.

The Province of Biscay or Vizcaya.] The surface of Biscay is everywhere surrounded with high mountains; the Cantabrian chain spreads in several branches over it, of which the pyramidal Serrantes are the most remarkable. The scenery is wild but not unpleasant; the soil is stony but fertile in the open valleys. Numerous streams rush down from the mountains into the Bay of Biscay, which indents the land with several small basins, and breaks its impetuous waves against different promontories, among which those of Machichaco and Ogonno are the principal. The chief river is the Bilbao or Ybaichalval which is formed by several small ones, and is navigable to Bilboa; another coast-river is the Cadagun. There are some small mountain-lakes and mineral springs. The climate is temperate; the air pure, healthy, and bracing. Agriculture is well-managed, although no animals can be used in the plough. Every thing is done by the hands of men, who even carry the manure up the steep rocks on their backs, and thus create a fertile soil in places otherwise only accessible to the chamois. However, the corn grown is not sufficient for the consumption; fishing is a principal branch of industry; sea-fish, oysters and mussels are sent from the coasts of Biscay through the whole country. This province produces the best iron in Spain, and in so great quantity that Antillon estimates the annual produce of the mine of Samorrostra at 800,000 cwt. Wool is an important article of commerce. The ancient language of Cantabria is nowhere spoken with greater purity than in Ordunna and Bilboa, but the only known compositions in the language are some hymns and psalms sung by the pilgrims of St Jago. The Biscayan is clever, but vain to a proverb of his personal graces. Wealth is very generally diffused here; but there are no rich convents, and the clergy live in a state of great poverty almost bordering upon mendicity. The abbot of Zenaruzza, the richest abbey in the whole province, has only 1500 florins a year. There are 1 cividade, and 20 villas in this province. The inhabitants chiefly live in isolated houses. There are 165 parishes, 32 monasteries, 19 nunneries, and 14 establishments of charity.

Chief Towns.] Ordunna, with 4,000 inhabitants, is the chief town. Bilboa, a town in a narrow valley, on the river of the same name, with 15,000 inhabitants, is one of the most important and animated places of commerce in the north of Spain. There are above 200 commercial houses here, among which the British and Bohemian merchants transact a great deal of business. The principal articles of exportation are wool, of which 50,000 or 60,000 bags are annually exported, iron, chesnuts, and timber; about 160,000 tons of stock-fish and 6,000 tons of fish-oil are also yearly sent from here into the interior of the kingdom. This town, however, has nothing deserving the name of a harbour. Small vessels come up the river; others remain at Portugalete, or Olavijaja, and their cargoes are brought to Bilboa in lighters. Durango with 2,800 inhabitants is famous for a manufactory of sword blades.

2*d. The Province of Guipuscoa.*] The scenery of this small province is very picturesque and romantic. High mountains, partly barren, and

partly covered with ever-green forests, run out from the Pyrenees, and spread over the whole country. The Cantabrian ridge, to which belong the elevated Jaitzquibel, and the Alzanja, over which the great high road of the Romans was conducted, takes its rise in this province. The Cabo de Higuera and the Cabo San Antonio belong to this coast, besides numerous small bays which form excellent harbours; but none of the rivers are navigable, and all have a very short course. The soil is rocky; the climate is very mild and healthy, and there is no want of rain, which preserves the fresh verdure of the fields. Thunder-storms frequently occur in December and January. Among the Guipuscoans it is not rare to find men of 90 and 100 years of age. Fishing is the chief occupation of the inhabitants of the coast; they supply Alava, Navarre, and a part of Castile and Arragon, with sea-fish. The principal inland industry is confined to the working of iron. The inhabitants have nothing of the gloomy and repulsive gravity of the Castilians; notwithstanding the roughness and simplicity of their manners, honesty, benevolence, gallantry, and industry, are prominent features of their character. They are fond of games which require bodily strength and exertion, in which even their women join them. They are passionately fond of dancing, particularly of their national dance the *Zorcico;* but their principal amusement is a kind of bull-fight, called *Novillos.* There are 2 cividades, 65 villas, 17 villages, 120 parishes, 13 monasteries, 26 nunneries, and 14 establishments of charity in Guiposcoa.

Chief Towns.] Tolosa, with 4,200 inhabitants, is stated to be the capital. St Sebastian is a sea-port town containing 12,000 inhabitants, with a good trade and a well-frequented harbour. It is situated at the foot of a mountain which rises in the form of a sugar-loaf. A castle is built upon this lofty height, which, from the steepness of the ascent is almost impregnable and inaccessible. The town is also very strongly fortified, and the harbour is secured by two moles. The houses are neat, the churches handsome, and the environs pleasant. The trade is so great, and the city so populous in proportion to its extent, that several families are obliged to dwell in the same house. The trade consists chiefly in iron and steel said to be the best in Europe. This place is extremely important in a military and political point of view, as it is in a great measure the key of Spain on the western side of the Pyrenees; and, on account of its strength and importance, is esteemed the Gibraltar of the north of Spain. It was taken on the 1st of August 1794 by the French. It was again seized by Napoleon, and was retaken, after a long siege and gallant defence, by the allies under lord Lynedoch.—Fuente Rabbia, with 1,700 inhabitants, is a small fortress on the Bidassoa, close to the French boundaries. A ferry here crosses the Bidassoa, and, according to treaty, the river being neutral, Spain draws the ferry-duty from the travellers coming from France, and France from those coming from Spain.—At Mondragon, a town of 2,400 inhabitants, the rich iron-mines above mentioned are situated.—Salinas, on the Deva, has a salt-work which produces 20,000 cwt. a year.—La Isla de los Faisanes, is an island in the Bidassoa, celebrated in history for the peace of the Pyrenees, which was concluded here in 1659.

3d. The Province of Alava.] The surface of Alava is everywhere covered with high mountains running out from the Pyrenees; the Cantabrian ridge forms the boundaries between this province, Biscay, and Guipuscoa; in the E. rise the Aras Montanna; in the S.W. the Sierra de

Tolanno; and in the W. the Montes de Aracena, the Sierra Arcanio, and the Montes de Guibijo, almost all covered with forests. The climate is serene and healthy, but much warmer than in the N. of Cantabria, as there is no sea-breeze here to cool the burning heat of the sun. The rearing of cattle is more extensive than in the two other provinces. The forests are considerable, and of importance to the Spanish navy. The inhabitants are wealthy, and begging is not tolerated. There are 1 cividade, 91 towns, 340 villages, 435 parishes, 7 monasteries, 11 nunneries, and 17 establishments of charity in Alava.

Chief Towns.] Vittoria, the capital, is a handsome city, situated at the end of a beautiful plain, irrigated by the Zadorra. It does not contain above 4,000 inhabitants. It was frequently taken and retaken during the late war; and will be ever memorable in the annals of history for a most complete and decisive victory obtained over a French army of 70,000 men, commanded by marshal Jourdan and Joseph Buonaparte, by the allied army commanded by the duke of Wellington. The enemy's loss amounted, by all the private accounts from Spain, to 25,000 men. Vittoria is 180 British miles, horizontal distance, from Madrid.—Bannos de Ebro on the Ebro, contains a bath and mineral springs.—El Ciego on the Ebro, is a town of 1,200 inhabitants.

COLONIES.] Spain at the beginning of this century possessed the following colonies.

IN NORTH AMERICA.

1st. MEXICO or NEW SPAIN, the most important of all its colonies, now independent.

2d. GUAMALATI, now independent.

3d. THE ISLAND OF CUBA, containing the important city and harbour of the Havannah, which still belongs to Spain.

4th. PUERTO RICO, consisting of the island of Puerto Rico, and several smaller islands, which yet belong to Spain.

IN SOUTH AMERICA.

1st. NEW GRANADA, now the independent state of Columbia.

2d. THE CARACCAS.

3d. PERU, now independent.

4th. CHILI, now independent.

5th. RIO DE LA PLATA, now independent.

IN AFRICA.

1st. The CANARY ISLANDS in the Atlantic, which still belong to Spain.

2d. The PRESIDIAS, a name given to the islands of Ceuta, Metilla, Pennon, and Albucemas, the remains of the Spanish possessions on the coast of Barbary.

3d. The ISLANDS of ANNABOA and FERNANDO PO, which were ceded in 1778 by Portugal, but never taken possession of by Spain.

IN ASIA.

1st. The PHILLIPPINES, a group of islands between the Pacific and the Chinese Sea, said to be inhabited by 3,000,000 inhabitants, of whom two-thirds acknowledge Spanish authority.

2d. The CAROLINES, an archipelago in the Pacific.

3d. The MARIANES or LADRONES, an archipelago in the Pacific.

Authorities.] Townshend's Journey through Spain in 1786–7. Lond. 1791. 3 vols. 8vo.—Swinburne's Picturesque Tour through Spain. Lond.

1806, fol.—Elementos de la Geografia de Espanna y Portugal por D. Isidoro de Antillon. Madrid, 1808, 8vo.—P. C. Rehfue's l'Espagne, in 1808. Par. 2 vols.—Geografica hist. moderna descr. de las Prov. de Espanna por D. Lopez. Madr. 2 vols. fol.—Blayney's Narrative. Lond. 1811, 4to.—Carr's Descriptive Travels in Spain. Lond. 1814. 2 vols. 4to.—Broughton's Letters. Lond. 1815. 8vo.—Quin's Visit to Spain in 1822–3. Lond. 8vo.—Diccionario Geografico-Estadistico de Espana y Portugal. This great work was begun by the Spanish Academy of History, and has been recently completed by Dr Minano, in 10 vols. 4to.—Carte d'Espagne et de Portugal, d'après Montelle et Chanlaire en 9 feuilles. Paris, 1799—1807. Mapa general de Espanna por Lopez. Madrid, 4 feuilles.—Antillon's Map, though on a small scale, is very accurate.—Semple's Tour in Spain, 8vo. 1813.—Laborde's View of Spain. Lond. 1809, 5 vols.—Bourgoigne's Travels in Spain. 4 vols. 8vo. 1823.

PORTUGAL.

Name.] The name *Portugal* only came into use about the 11th century. In the Roman period, there was a town called *Calle*—now Oporto—near the mouth of the Douro; and this haven having been much frequented, the ignorance of the middle ages conferred on the surrounding region the name *Porto Calle,* which, as the country was gradually recovered from the Moors, was yet more improperly extended to the whole kingdom. Its ancient name was *Lusitania;* but the boundaries were very different from those of modern Portugal.

Boundaries and Extent.] Portugal is bounded on the N. and E. by Spain; and on the S. and W. by the Atlantic. It extends from Cape St Mary, in 37° 3′ north latitude, to its most northern point upon the river Minho, in 42° 11′ north latitude; and from its most eastern point upon the river Douro, in 7° 20′ west longitude, to its most western point, Cape Roca, in 9° 40′ west longitude. Its length from N. to S. is about 300 geographical, or 360 English miles; and its greatest breadth somewhat more than 100 geographical, or 120 English miles. The whole has been calculated by Hassel to contain 1,642 German, or 36,945 English square miles. Balbi states its area at 38,800 British square miles. Antillon, upon the authority of an old map by Camponianes, estimates the surface of this kingdom at 1,933 German square miles, and Soares de Barros—upon the same authority probably—at 1,896 German square miles. By Lopez's map, its extent is 3,437 square leagues, or 22,706,880 English acres.

Civil Divisions.] Portugal is divided into six provinces: viz. 1*st.* Entre Douro o Minho; 2*d.* Tras os Montes; 3*d.* Beira; 4*th.* Estremadura; 5*th.* Alentejo; 6*th.* Algarva. The two first form the northern part of the kingdom; the next two the central; and the two last the southern part. There are 23 cities in Portugal, but some are very small; 350 towns, or municipalities; the villages are very numerous, and the parishes are 4,262 in number. The following table contains the number of parishes and hearths in each province, as ascertained by the researches of the Portuguese magistrates, published in 1802, and the superficial extent in square leagues and English acres:

	Parishes.	Hearths.	Square leagues.	English acres.
Entre Douro o Minho, .	1,327	181,593	291	1,927,040
Tras os Montes, . . .	711	77,054	455	3,007,760
Beira, ...	1,292	224,649	753	4,936,880
Estremadura, ...	420	120,333	823	5,450,880
Alentejo, ...	369	76,246	883	5,848,320
Algarva, ...	71	25,523	232	1,536,000
Lisbon and suburbs, . .	72	54,954		
	4,262	760,352	3,437	22,706,880

CHAP. I.—HISTORY.

Early History.] Long before the Roman dominion, Portugal had been visited by the Phœnicians, Carthaginians, and Greeks, for purposes of commerce. Under the name of *Lusitania* it was conquered by the Romans, who imparted their civilization to the inhabitants, a Celtic tribe. After those events the country was overrun by the Alans, Suevi, Goths, and other German tribes, and was finally conquered by the Moors. A small part of this country between the Minho and Douro, was recovered from the Moors, in the year 1050, by one of the kings of Castile; who having divided his dominions among his sons, Galicia and the territory to the south of it fell to the share of Garcia, who is styled on his tomb-stone *king of Portugal and Galicia.* Alphonso VI. king of Castile and Leon, being hard pressed by the Almoravidan Moors—who had turned the tide of victory by defeating him at the battle of Zala in 1087—obtained assistance from France. Amongst the leaders of the French auxiliaries was Henry, a younger brother of the Duke of Burgundy, who having signalized himself in several engagements with the Moors, Alphonso bestowed upon him his natural daughter Theresa, and dignified him with the title of Count of Portugal: at the same time declaring that territory independent of the Castilian crown. Henry died in 1112, and was succeeded by his son, Alphonso I.; whose minority was embroiled in alternate contests with the kings of Castile, and his ambitious mother, Theresa. In 1139, Alphonso having obtained a complete victory over five Moorish princes, his soldiers, charmed with the gallantry of their leader, proclaimed him king upon the field of battle, and he exchanged the humble title of Count for that of a Royal Sovereign.

Middle History, from 1139 *to* 1495.] In 1148, Alphonso seized Lisbon by the assistance of a fleet of English and Hanseatic crusaders going to the Holy Land. He died in 1185. In 1254, the conquest of Algarva was completed by Alphonso III. who reigned from 1245 to 1279. The affairs of Portugal were prosperously conducted under a succession of able princes; but the Moorish wars were succeeded by those with the kings of Castile, in which the deep natural hatred of the Portuguese and Spaniards first originated. Among the kings of this period we distinguish Dennis, who reigned from 1279 to 1325, and who was worthy of the surnames which he received from a grateful posterity,—the Just, the Cultivator, the Father of his country. He resisted with prudence and firmness the encroaching spirit of the clergy, who loudly demanded exemption from taxes, and, at the same time, he managed to remain on good terms with the most imperious of popes, Nicolas IV. Himself a scholar and a poet, he proved the most liberal friend of science, and founded the university at Lisbon, which was in 1309 transferred to Coimbra. The administration of this king exerted the most beneficial influence on the industry, agriculture, commerce, and navigation of Portugal; and the rising wealth of the towns produced here, as in Spain, a *tiers-etat,* in addition to the feudal nobility and clergy. Dennis was succeeded by Alphonso IV., whose son and successor, Pedro, married the unfortunate Ines de Castro, whose tragic and romantic history forms one of the finest episodes in the Lusiad of Camoens, and has been the subject of several tragedies. With Pedro's son Ferdinand, who died in 1383, the male line of the Burgundian dynasty was extinguished. Ferdinand, indeed, had a daughter, Beatrix, who was

married to the king of Castile, but the national enmity which existed between the Portuguese against the Castilians was so great, that the States chose the natural brother of Ferdinand, the gallant John I., for their king. John bravely maintained himself on the throne, with the aid of his general Alvaro Nunez Pereira, who defeated the Castilians at Aljubarotta in 1385. After having concluded peace with Castile in 1411, John devoted his attention to the improvement of his country. He transferred the royal residence from Coimbra to Lisbon; and carried his victorious arms into Africa, where his gallant sons distinguished themselves in the taking of Ceuta in 1415. To the third of his sons, the celebrated Henry the Navigator, we owe the discovery of Porto Santo in 1418, of Madeira in 1420, of the Azores in 1433, of the rich coast of Guinea, and of that of Sierra Leone. John II., who mounted the throne in 1481, was the most vigorous king Portugal ever possessed. Under his reign began the struggle with the aristocracy, whose power had already reached a great height. He recovered the domains of the Crown, which had been wrested from his weaker predecessors by their avaricious nobles, and checked the legislative power of the nobles, by appointing judges who were to be lawyers and not knights. In 1481, Bartholomew Diaz returned from a voyage in which he had discovered the southern point of Africa, which he called *Cabo de todas los tormentos*; 'The Cape of all torments;' but this name was changed by the king into the more auspicious one of *Cape of Good Hope*. The good success of their own voyages of discovery, and the immense wealth which these opened up to them, may account for the refusal which the great Columbus met with when he offered his services to the court of Portugal. But after the successful voyage of this bold navigator, John again despatched a fleet to make new discoveries in the west, which caused a dispute between Castile and Portugal, until Pope Alexander III. decided it by drawing a line running nearly 1,600 miles to the west of the Azores and the Cape Verd islands, which was to be the boundary between the future conquests of the two powers.

Modern History.] What John II. begun was continued under the reign of Emmanuel, surnamed the Fortunate, who reigned from 1495 to 1521. In 1497 he sent Vasco de Gama with four vessels to double the Cape of Good Hope. Vasco arrived safe at Goa, and thus established a new road to the East Indies. In the beginning of the 16th century Francis de Almeida was viceroy of India, and conquered Ceylon. Alfonso de Albuquerque, one of the most distinguished men in the annals of history, equally great as a conqueror and as the administrator of government in the conquered lands, rendered Goa the most important harbour in the East Indies, and the chief place of commerce between Portugal and India. America too excited the spirit of enterprise among the Portuguese. De Cabral landed in 1500 in Brazil, which was taken possession of in 1501 by Amerigo Vespucci. Magellan discovered the Moluccas in 1512; and in 1520 the Straits which bear his name. Emmanuel's sway was now owned from Bab-El Mandel to the Straits of Malacca; and Lisbon became the most animated commercial town in Europe. But in the campaign against the Moors in Africa, the Portuguese arms were not equally fortunate. Under Emmanuel's son, John III., who reigned from 1521 to 1559, discovery and commerce were pushed in the East Indies; but the consequences of the rapid increase of money, with which industry did not keep pace, began about this time to be felt in Europe. John allowed the Inquisition to be introduced in 1536; and here, as in Spain, this horrible

tribunal soon began to exert its pestilential influence on the national character. John—as if he had been destined by fate to sacrifice the prosperity of his country—also permitted the Jesuits to enter the kingdom in 1540, earlier than the like privilege had been granted them by any other European prince. These cunning priests very willingly undertook missions to India—which hitherto had been principally in the hands of the Franciscans—and to them also was intrusted the education of the heir to the crown, the prince Sebastian. His wretched tutors implanted in his young heart those fanatical principles which ultimately led to his ruin, by engaging him in a wild crusade against the Mahommedans in Africa. In his very first expedition into Barbary he was unsuccessful; but, though unfortunate, he was not cured of his religious madness. Resolutely bent on war, he again, with a numerous and well-appointed army, landed in Africa and engaged in battle with Muley Moluc, the Moorish sovereign of Barbary, at Alcassar, in 1578. Both armies fought with the most determined valour heightened by religious animosity; but the Mussulmen prevailed; the king and most of his nobles fell; and the rout was so complete that only about fifty of Sebastian's army escaped. Cardinal Henry, uncle to the deceased monarch, succeeded to the crown, but died after a reign of two years, and the numerous competitors for the succession, involved the kingdom in fresh troubles. Of these rivals, there were no less than three: the prince of Parma, the duchess of Braganza, and Philip of Spain, who claimed the crown in virtue of the right of his wife Mary, daughter of John III. Sebastian's father. But the Portuguese, who would not have a king of Castile for their sovereign, placed Don Antonio upon the throne; whereupon Philip sent the celebrated duke of Alva with 20,000 veteran troops into Portugal. Antonio was defeated at Alcantara in 1581 and compelled to save himself by flight; and the Portuguese immediately submitted to Alva's victorious arms. But Philip could not secure the affections of a people who hated the very name of a Castilian. At last a conspiracy was organized; the Spaniards were driven out of Lisbon; and the duke of Braganza proclaimed king of Portugal, under the title of John IV. in 1640. During the period of Spanish domination, the English and Dutch, who were at war with that country, attacked the defenceless colonies of Portugal, and many of those magnificent possessions which had been conquered by the glorious ancestors of the Portuguese were now wrested from them; the heroism of the nation had died away, and the arrogance and harshness with which they uniformly treated the conquered had inspired the princes and nations of Asia with so great a hatred that they considered any change as a gain. The Dutch conquered the Moluccas and the half of Brazil; they also took the colonies on the coast of Guinea in 1637, and got admission into the rich market of India, from which they gradually expelled the Portuguese. It was the rapacity of the Spaniards in alienating the domains of the crown,—the supineness with which they viewed the losses hourly sustained by Portugal in her foreign possessions,—and the shameful conduct of Olivarez, minister of Philip IV. which led to the rebellion that placed the house of Braganza on the throne. The immediate consequence of the re-establishment of Portugal's independence was the war against Spain, which was at last ended by the peace of 1668, in which Spain renounced all her claims on Portugal. John's successors, Alphonso VI., and his brother Pedro II., concluded a peace with Holland under the mediation of Great

Britain, by which Brazil and Goa were restored to Portugal; but the ancient greatness of these possessions was gone, and could not be recovered. Under the first king of the house of Braganza a treaty of commerce had been concluded with England, and a new treaty, negotiated in 1703 by the English ambassador Methven, drew the bonds of amity still closer together. During the long reign of John V., from 1707 to 1750, a little more vigour was manifested in the foreign policy of Portugal, and some restrictions were put on the Inquisition. John received the title of His Most Faithful Majesty, from the Pope in 1749. Under his son Joseph I. who succeeded him in 1750, the marquis de Pombal a man of distinguished talents, took the helm of the State into his hands; he was a stanch and intrepid reformer, such as the country needed; but the struggle was a hard one, and Pombal was occasionally obliged to disregard the sacred laws of humanity and justice. The places of confessors in the royal family were taken from the Jesuits, and they were forbidden to appear at court: in 1761 they were for ever banished from the kingdom, and all their property was confiscated. The army at the same time was reorganized under a German general the count of Schaumburg-Lippe. When Joseph's daughter Maria Francisca Isabella, who had in 1760 been married to her uncle Don Pedro, mounted the throne in 1777, Pombal was turned out of office, and many of his useful institutions fell with him. Under Maria's government the whole power was divided between an unenlightened nobility and an ignorant clergy. In 1792 the queen fell into a state of melancholy which caused a regency—having her son the prince of Brazil at its head—to be instituted; and the latter in 1799, when the illness of the queen rose to complete madness, following the same principles of government which had been followed by his mother, caused himself to be proclaimed sole regent. The close alliance with England forced Portugal to take a part in the war against France; but the threats of Spain, then the ally of France, led to a peace with that power in 1797. In 1799 when the French arms were unfortunate, the regent concluded a new alliance with England and Russia; but as soon as Buonaparte assumed the supreme power in France, he forced Spain again to declare war against Portugal in 1801, which was terminated the same year by the peace of Badajoz, in which Portugal ceded Olivenza and paid a contribution of money to Spain. In the war of 1803, Portugal purchased a precarious neutrality by the payment of a large annual tribute to Buonaparte; but on the 29th of November 1807, Napoleon having sent an army into Portugal on the refusal of the prince-regent to shut his ports to British vessels, the latter threw himself entirely into the arms of the English, and sailed with his family and court, under the protection of a British fleet, to Rio Janeiro in Brazil. The day after this marshal Junot entered the capital. But an English army having landed, guerillas were formed in the southern part of the country, and in 1808 a junto was assembled at Oporto to take the reins of government into its hands. After some sharp fighting on the western coast, the battle of Vimeira on the 21st August 1808 was followed by the capitulation of Cintra on the 30th of the same month, according to which the French troops evacuated Portugal, and were conveyed to France by British vessels. Portugal, wrested by British bravery from the hands of its cruel and rapacious invaders, was restored to its native prince by the peace of Paris in May 1814; and its independence again secured by the interference of that friendly power to which the

hous[illegible]anza has more than once been indebted for its political existence[illegible]t the prince-regent not being inclined to leave Brazil, raised [illegible]ank of a kingdom on the 16th of December 1815; and upon th[illegible] of the queen on the 20th of March 1816, took the title of king und[illegible]e name of John VI.

Recent Events.] Between Spain and Portugal considerable misapprehensions had for some time prevailed, in consequence of the refusal of the former to restore Olivenza notwithstanding the determination of the congress of Vienna, and the occupation of Monte Video in South America by the latter, to secure herself against the consequence of the insurrection of the Spanish colonies. The ungrateful Portuguese also began to object to the influence which Britain naturally possessed in a country which depended upon her for its existence, and a conspiracy was organized by general Gomez Freyre in January 1817, to free the country from foreign influence; but this plan was discovered and punished by the execution of Freyre, and 13 of his partisans. Lord Beresford embarked for Brazil on the 4th of April 1820; and on the 24th of August, a part of the Portuguese army rose against the English at Oporto, and a new constitution was proposed. This movement was organized by colonel Sepulveda in concert with the bishop and the civil authorities of Oporto, and a provisional government was established. The Cortes assembled at Lisbon on the 28th of January 1821, when, during the absence of the king, a regency of five persons was named; and the Spanish constitution, with some modifications, was declared the fundamental law of the kingdom. These events in the mother-country soon exercised a reaction upon Brazil itself. On the 1st of January the province Para declared for a constitutional government, and Madeira, Bahia, and Pernambuco followed the example thus set them. On the 24th of February the king promised to make certain changes in the form of government; but the discontented not satisfied with this, addressed themselves to the crown prince Don Pedro, upon which the king promised to introduce the constitution of Portugal into Brazil, which was sworn to by the crown-prince in his own and his father's name. Directly after this the king declared his resolution to return to Portugal, and on the 21st of April embarked with a retinue of 4000 men, and a considerable sum of money, leaving the crown-prince as regent in Brazil. The king having landed in Portugal on the 4th of July 1821, confirmed all the resolutions of the Cortes, and swore to the constitution by which all feudal rights, the Inquisition, and censorship were abolished, and trial by jury introduced in civil and criminal affairs. It was in many respects like the Spanish, but had only one chamber—the Cortes—in whom alone the legislative power was vested. The French invasion of Spain in April 1823, having dissolved the constitution in that country, the second son of king John, Don Miguel, with the co-operation of his mother, a sister of Ferdinand VII. of Spain, and a part of the army, overturned the Portuguese constitution on the 27th of May 1823. He vowed death to the infamous freemasons, and caused the greatest part of the ministry, several ambassadors, and other persons to be arrested. Against these extravagant proceedings the ambassadors present at Lisbon protested, and followed the king on board an English frigate lying on the Tagus. Within three days, however, the king's party again prevailed, and the queen-mother and her son were driven from the position which they had attempted to occupy in the government. Shortly after these transactions, a treaty was con-

cluded between Portugal and Brazil, by which it was declared that the two countries should remain united under the dominion of John VI. and his legitimate descendants, but each with an independent administration; that the title of his most faithful majesty, should be *king of Portugal and the Algarves and emperor of Brazil;* that the sovereign might reside in either country as circumstances might require; and that that part of the empire in which the sovereign should not reside, should be governed by the hereditary prince or princess under the title of regent. The king having expired at Lisbon on the 10th of March 1826, while his hopeful son Don Miguel was in honourable exile at Vienna, and his consort in a state of exclusion at the palace of Quebeira, the emperor of Brazil, as eldest son of the deceased king, succeeded by law to the vacant throne, and the infanta Isabella Maria entered on the functions of regent in name of her brother. On receiving intelligence of these events, Don Pedro, by a decree of 29th April, gave to the Portuguese a constitutional charter, vesting the crown of Portugal in the person of the princess Maria da Gloria and her descendants, and modelling the government strictly after the form of the British one, by the establishment of two chambers. This decree was followed by another of date the 2d of May, in which his majesty abdicated his rights to the crown of Portugal, in favour of his eldest daughter Maria da Gloria, whom he at the same time espoused to her uncle Don Miguel. These arrangements seemed at first to give universal satisfaction; but the charter—which was nearly a transcript of the constitution already given to Brazil—produced a great sensation in Spain, and towards the end of July a scheme was discovered to subvert the government, and to proclaim Don Miguel sovereign. The queen-mother did not conceal her hatred of the constitution, and Spain was held out as the model which Portugal ought to imitate by a party, headed by the marquis of Chaves, who were hostile to the introduction of any thing like popular elements into the government. On the 31st of July the royalists, as they called themselves, proclaimed Don Miguel king, and the queen-dowager regent during his absence. Spain secretly supported the rebels, and the priesthood lent the whole weight of their influence over a bigotted people to the cause, although the patriarch himself disavowed all connexion with their proceedings, and called their enterprise by its right name. The troops of the regency acted with little energy against the rebels; but the arrival of a British armament quickly changed the face of affairs, drove the insurgents out of the kingdom, and overawed their insidious ally. The princess-regent amid these troubles betrayed her unfitness for the important charge entrusted to her, by dismissing her most faithful and useful ministers; and Don Pedro on receiving intelligence of the dissensions which reigned in her government, determined to transfer her authority to her brother, whom by a decree, signed at Rio Janeiro on the 3d of July, he appointed his lieutenant to govern the kingdoms of Portugal and Algarves conformably to the constitutional charter. The elevation of Don Miguel renewed all the hopes of the enemies of the constitution, although he himself hypocritically affirmed his determination to maintain inviolate the institutions legally granted by his august brother. It is well known that instantly on his arrival in Portugal, Don Miguel threw off the mask, and allowed himself to be proclaimed absolute and independent king under the title of Miguel I. A counter-revolution was attempted by the constitutionalists; but the British troops had been with

drawn; the people at large, uninformed and bigotted, either remained passive spectators, or, with the exception of the better instructed, took part against a movement which was viewed with approbation by all that were honourable and patriotic in Portugal; and the higher classes basely deserted the house of peers to cling to the court of the usurper.

CHAP. II.—PHYSICAL FEATURES—CLIMATE—SOIL—AND PRODUCTIONS.

PORTUGAL in its general appearance has a considerable resemblance to Spain. It has not, however, so great a proportion of mountains, and seems neither to be so barren as the northern provinces of Spain, nor so fertile as its southern provinces. It is perhaps, in general, more pleasant than any part of that country with which it is so closely connected.

Physical Features.] There are only two extensive plains, the larger in Alenteja, and the smaller one in Beira. The most mountainous of the Portuguese provinces is Traz os Montes; but in Algarva too the flat country extends scarcely above 8 miles from the coast. Most of the mountains are barren; but a few are clothed with a fine vegetation. The coast is low in the N.; but rises afterwards, and is indented with rocks. In Beira it again flattens, and becomes sandy, in Estremadura it alternately rises and falls, and is unsafe for navigation. Under the Cabo Espichel the shore is high, steep, and rough; in Alentejo it is low, but the sea is shallow and unsafe. From Cabo S. Vicente, the coast rises to the E. but sinks again into sand-islands at the mouth of the Guadiana. The declination of upwards of four-fifths of the kingdom is to the W.; the eastern part of Alentejo and Algarva decline towards the south.

Mountains.] The mountains of Portugal are all continuations of the Spanish Pyrenees. They are: 1*st.* The Cantabrian chain, which spreads from Galicia over Traz os Montes and Minhó, and of which the Gaviard, the highest summit, rises to 7,886 feet. It terminates at the mouth of the Vonga. All the different branches of the Cantabrian mountains in Portugal are granitic. 2*d.* The Guadarramas; to this chain belongs the Sierra de Estrella, a continuation of the Spanish Sierra de Gata, between the Douro and Tajo, rising to the height of 7,647 feet according to Balbi, and 6,883 according to Franzini. The Sierra de Cintra, which runs into the ocean at Cabo de Boca, is the extremity of the chain of the Guadarramas. 3*d.* The Sierra de Guadaloupe, of which the principal branches are the Sierra de Arrabida in Estremadura, which ends in the Cabo Espichel, and in Alentejo the Sierra de Ossa and the Sierra de Mamede. 4*th.* The Sierra Morena, which sends its branches through Algarva and Alentejo, and ends in the Cabo S. Vicente. In the S. its vanguards terminate in the Cabo Carvoeiro and Cabo de S. Maria. Its highest summits do not rise above 4000 feet above the level of the sea, but the Picota de Monchique serves as a signal to navigators who have reached the Cabo de S. Vicente.

Capes.] The principal promontories are the Cabo Mondego at the mouth of the river of the same name; the Cabo de Carvoeiro at the point of Peniche, which must be distinguished from the promontory of the same name in Algarva; the Cabo de Boca, and the Cabo Espichel on both sides of the mouth of the Tajo; the Cabo S. Vicente, the most S.W. point of

Europe; and the Cabo de Carvoeiro and de S. Maria on the coast of Algarva.

Rivers.] The chief rivers of Portugal have their origin in Spain, and have consequently been already mentioned. The Tajo flows into the sea at Lisbon, where its estuary forms the harbour belonging to that city.—The Douro, a very rapid stream, falls into the sea at Oporto.—The Guadiana has a small part of its course in this country. It is unnecessary to repeat what has been already said of these rivers. From the small extent of Portugal, it is not to be expected that any river of great size can belong wholly to it. Of those streams which have their sources in this kingdom the chief seem to be the Mondego which has its source near Guarda, in Beira; and falls into the sea below Coimbra; the Cadaen which runs into the Atlantic at Setuval; and the Sora which falls into the Tajo.

Lakes.] No lake is found in this country which merits a description. Travellers have astonished the world with the account of fountains on which not even the lightest substance would float: they had perhaps received their accounts from natives who were not able to discover that the appearance which so much astonished them might be produced by a simple vortex. There are some extensive swamps on the coasts of Beira. Portugal abounds in mineral springs.

Climate.] The climate of Portugal is much more agreeable and more healthy than that of the greater part of Spain. Near Lisbon the atmosphere is so remarkably salubrious that invalids often resort thither from different nations. The heat in summer, and the cold in winter, are rendered moderate by the proximity of the Atlantic ocean; the medial degree of temperature is said to be about 60°. At Lisbon, rain is so far from being frequent that the number of days in which it rains constantly is said seldom to exceed 80; the number of days on which it is completely fair is generally about 200. When rain falls it is very violent.

Soil, Agriculture, Wines.] The soil of Portugal, like that of Spain, is in general fertile. It is for the most part of a light texture, and might be easily cultivated, but the Portuguese are said to bestow even the little toil which it needs very unwillingly, so that agriculture is little practised or understood. It is owing rather to this than to any deficiency in the soil that Portugal does not produce grain sufficient for its own inhabitants. Wheat and Indian corn are the species of grain which are most cultivated; the bread made of the latter is called *broa*, and forms the principal food of the common people. Vegetables are everywhere cultivated; but flax and hemp are reared only in very small quantities, and most of the linen and sail-cloth used in this country are imported. Wine is the chief production of the country. Of the Portuguese wines, Mr Henderson remarks, that the choicest growths are seldom to be procured pure. A great company has been long established for managing the wine-trade, and one of their privileges was to fix a maximum on the price of wine. Though at the late revolution this privilege was greatly abridged, yet it is not altogether done away, and the company still retain other privileges highly injurious (as all privileges must be that are inconsistent with the freedom of trade) to the growth of wine. The consequence is that all the produce of the Portugal vineyards is mixed together, and brought to one uniform level. "In this way," Mr Henderson observes, "the finer products of the Douro vintages have remained, in a great measure, unknown to us; and Port wine has come to be considered as a single liquor, if I may use the expression, of nearly uniform flavour and strength varying it is true,

to a certain extent, in quality, but still always approaching to a definite standard, and admitting of few degrees of excellence. The manipulations, the admixtures, and, in one word, the adulterations, to which the best wines of the Cima do Douro are subjected, have much the same effect, as if all the growths of Burgundy were to be mingled in one immense vat, and sent into the world as the only true Burgundian wine; the delicious produce of Romanée, Chambertin, and the Clos Vougeot, would disappear; and in their places we should find nothing better than a second rate Beaune or Macon wine." The same cause, namely, the influence of this company, has, according to Mr Henderson, ruined the Portugal white wines. These were formerly excellent, but the farmers being restricted as to the price, extirpated all the finest vines, and substituted others, which produced a larger quantity of wine, but of a coarser quality. Some red wines, resembling port, are imported into this country from Portugal. The principal are from the neighbourhood of Figuera dos Vinhos, near Thomar, and from Colares, near Cintra, about seven leagues from Lisbon. Some of these last are excellent, possessing delicacy, softness, body, and flavour. The white and red wines, chiefly gathered between Oiras and Carcavellos, in Estremadura, are known in England under the general name of Lisbon wines. They are good, wholesome, unsophisticated wines (because not fashionable,) and, when cheap wines are let in—as they should and must eventually be—for the consumption of the middling classes, at an equitable duty, they will come more into deserved notice and favour. The wines of Setuval, 15 miles S. and of Santarem, 45 miles N.W. from Lisbon, are of good quality. There are of these growths dry wines, and also sweet wines of the Muscatel flavour. Bucellas, about five leagues N. of Lisbon, produces a delicate and well-known white wine, resembling Barsac, but stronger,—an excellent table-wine when of sufficient age and not spoiled by brandy. Good old Bucellas is scarce, and sells for £42 per pipe. Lisbon wines, red and white, are worth from £28 to £34 in the London market, per pipe, of 140 old, equal to 117 imperial gallons.

Animals.] Cattle are in some places of considerable size; but in general the breed is neglected. The heat of summer parches the pasture, and artificial meadows are beyond the sphere of Portuguese agriculture. Mules, as in Spain, are used as beasts of burden; and are of a breed much superior to those found in more northern countries. Sheep are not reared with the same care as in Spain, and are consequently in every respect inferior. They are not numerous. Many hogs are reared; and the bacon of this country is not surpassed by that of any other. The fish upon the coast are numerous and of a good quality.

Minerals.] Portugal, like Spain, was formerly much more productive of the precious metals than it is at present; though it is probable that if these metals were not so easily procured from their colonies, a much greater quantity of them might be found at home than is at present. The Romans had mines which they wrought to a great extent in this country. The remains of what have been supposed to be these mines are still to be seen in the northern provinces. Of these one is described as being cut through the solid rock, upwards of 500 feet deep, and, at the surface, a mile and a half in circumference. The following is a list of the mineral produce of Portugal: gold, silver, tin, lead, copper, iron, coal, emery, marble, granite, talc, amianthus, felspar, fuller's earth, quicksilver, rubies, jacinths, and beryl. Besides these, Portugal produces manganese, bismuth,

and arsenic. Some part of this produce, particularly the iron, might be made the source of considerable wealth, but, unfortunately, fuel is scarce.

CHAP. III.—INHABITANTS—MANNERS AND CUSTOMS—LANGUAGE—LITERATURE—RELIGION.

The number of inhabitants in Portugal has been very differently estimated, some calculating the population as low as 1,838,879; Antillon fixing it at 3,683,000; Ebeling at 3,558,712; Soares de Barros, in his *Memoria sobre as cauzas da differente populac, as de Portugal*, published at Lisbon in 1798, at 3,352,000; while Murphy, upon the authority of other Portuguese writers, makes it to be 2,588,470, Humboldt 3,173,000, and Balbi in 1826, 3,530,000. The towns of Lisbon and Oporto together, comprise a tenth of the whole nation. The last government census makes the population, including 25,000 troops, and 10,000 monks and nuns, to be 3,013,570, distributed as under:

Province of Algarves,	113,600
Alentejo,	289,640
Estremadura,	652,490
Beira,	904,270
Minho,	750,820
Tras-os-Montes,	267,750
Military,	25,000
Monks and Nuns,	10,000
Total,	3,013,570

Manners and Customs.] The manners and customs of the Portuguese are discriminated into those of the northern and southern provinces; the inhabitants of the former being more industrious and sincere,—those of the latter more polite and elegant. In general, the Portuguese are a handsome race, with regular features, and dark expressive eyes. The prejudices of nobility are as common and pernicious here as in Spain; nor does that general intercourse between the different ranks of society which imparts knowledge and vigour to society exist here. All ranks seem fond of retirement and silence, and little inclined to social pleasures. The women are of small stature; but graceful and beautiful. Ladies of rank still imitate the industry of their ancestors in spinning flax from the distaff; and the oriental manner of sitting on cushions on the floor is often practised. The dress resembles the Spanish; but the men generally prefer the French costume, with the exception of a large loose cloak. The general dress is of woollen, and almost always black. The common people, in many cases, retain the ancient national habit, the petticoat and jacket. The fashions, among all ranks indeed, are much more permanent here than in more northern countries. "The form of their dress," says Murphy, "does not undergo a change perhaps once in an age; milliners, perfumers, and fancy-dress-makers, are professions as unknown in Lisbon as in ancient Lacedæmon." To visit any one above the rank of a tradesman, says the same traveller, it is necessary to wear a sword and chapeau; if the family you visit be in mourning, you must also wear black; the servants would not consider a visitant as a gentleman unless he came in a coach; to visit in boots would be an unpardonable offence, unless you wear spurs at the same time. The master of the house precedes the visitant on going out, the contrary order takes place in coming in." The

last-mentioned ceremony is likewise prevalent in Spain. The women in Portugal are no less closely confined than in Spain. They seldom leave their own apartment, except for a short time each day, when they go to church for the purpose of performing their devotions. If we may believe Murphy, the Portuguese ladies 'are chaste, modest, and extremely affectionate to their kindred;' but certainly the close confinement which is imposed upon them is not fitted to make a stranger believe that the Portuguese themselves entertain an equally high opinion of their countrywomen. When a woman is married, she retains her own name without assuming that of her husband. Instead of the surname, the Christian name is made use of when addressing an individual. To the surname and Christian name, another is often added, derived, for the most part, from circumstances peculiar to the individual; and it is not uncommon to add the name of the parents to that of the child. In their marriages, christenings, and funerals, the Portuguese are as fond of show and as extravagant as their continental neighbours. It is only on these extraordinary occasions, however, that the Portuguese lose sight of that temperance which is said to be habitual to them. Wine is seldom used by the men, and never by the women.

The ranks of men in Portugal—as, indeed, in the greater part of European nations—consist of the nobility, the clergy, the traders, and the peasants or labouring people. These different ranks, as in every other place, vary from each other in their manners and customs; and owing to several moral causes, differ in some respects from those of the same ranks in some other nations.

If extent of possession could make them rich, few nobles could be considered as being wealthier than those of Portugal, since their estates are said to be in general very large: but the value of landed property consists not in its extent, nor even in its intrinsic fertility, but depends on the state of that country in which it is situated. Besides, the Portuguese nobles are far from being greatly attached to their landed possessions. They value themselves on being born in Lisbon, and in spending their days in that city: many of them being ignorant of the extent of their possessions, and paying little other attention to them than receiving the scanty rent which the oppressed labourer is with difficulty able to pay. A particular college has been founded in Lisbon for the education of the nobles; but they appear to pay little attention to literature. Few of them can boast of great acquired abilities; their lives are generally spent without ostentation, in the calm of domestic comfort, without many of the tumultuous enjoyments and with few of the polished vices of more refined society.

The merchants are said to be attentive to business, and generally in their dealings to evince that honesty and candour by which mercantile transactions ought always to be characterised. Bankruptcies are uncommon. "A Lisbon merchant," says Murphy, "passes his hours in the following manner: he goes to prayers at eight o'clock, to Change at eleven, dines at one, sleeps till three, eats fruit at four, and sups at nine: the intermediate hours are employed in the counting-house, in paying visits, or in playing at cards."

Mr Kinsey represents the peasantry as a race possessed of many noble qualities to conciliate the good opinion of a stranger, but whose condition is embittered by every species of discomfort that can originate in oppression and misrule. Superadded to their political evils, is that pitiable

thraldom of reason, which the ministers of superstition have imposed, and the prescription of centuries has sanctioned. Such is the deplorable state of things where the moral interests of a people are intrusted to the untoward guidance of a worldly-minded priesthood, who are active only in hostility to the progress of knowledge and the advance of civilization.

The class which consists of what in other countries would be called gentlemen, that is, men of independent fortunes but without titles or any pretensions to nobility, contains few individuals. They are described, however, as being the most amiable class of the community. Their property is seldom large, and has generally been acquired by the arts of commerce, or by saving the profits of an employment under government. Their minds are generally more enlightened than those of either the higher or the lower ranks; and they have, consequently, fewer of the prejudices peculiar to their country.

In Portugal, as in other nations, there are many small peculiarities in the customs of common life, which have at first commenced in some trivial circumstance, and have afterwards been confirmed by habit. Such customs sometimes give, when properly described, a more lively picture of a people than circumstances generally esteemed of more importance. "Their cars," says Murphy, "have the rude appearance of the earliest ages: these vehicles are slowly drawn by two stout oxen. The corn is shelled by the treading of the same animals, as in the days of the Israelites; hence, probably, the Scripture precept, 'Thou shalt not muzzle the ox that treadeth out the corn.' They have many other customs which to us appear very singular; for example, women sit with the left side towards the horse's head when they ride. A postillion rides on the left horse. Footmen play at cards while they are waiting for their masters. A tailor sits at his work like a shoemaker. A hairdresser appears on Sundays with a sword, a cockade, and two watches, or, at least, two watch-chains. A tavern is known by a vine bush. A house to be let, by a piece of blank paper. An accoucheuse' door, by a white cross. And a Jew is known by his extra-catholic devotion."

The higher ranks in Portugal are little acquainted with the sports of hunting and fishing. For the former species of amusement their horses are said to be unfit; and for the same reason horse-racing is unknown. Riding out for recreation is seldom practised. Leak says, that neither fine paintings nor taste are to be found in Portugal. The games are billiards, backgammon, cards, and dice. The common people play at quarterstaff; but bull-fights here, as in Spain, constitute the great national amusement.[1]

[1] The following lively account of the manner of conducting these bull-fights in the Lisbon amphitheatre, is given by a very recent writer.

"The first bull afforded little sport; but the second, as soon as the door was opened, rushed in with the utmost fury, pursued the first *capinha* that attracted his notice, and missed him only by a hair's breadth. A *picador* on horseback then rode up to him, struck a barbed spear into his neck, broke the shaft, rode off—the bull in the utmost fury pursued him, caught the horse with his horns under the flank, and nearly brought him and his rider to the ground. The horse seemed not at all fond of the sport and kept his distance for some time, till at last the picador, watching the opportunity, struck a second and third and fourth arrow into his neck. The bull again pursued him, but was attracted by flags and scarfs; he vented his fury on them for some time, and pawed the ground with rage. When well-exhausted by similar attacks, and chasing the horse round the arena, one of the *homens de forca* turned out to the middle of the arena to catch him by the horns. This is an attempt of great danger, for if the *forcador* misses his aim the bull is certain to overturn him—as was the case in this instance. The forcador stood with open arms daring him to the contest, and he was

Language and Literature.] We have already stated that the Portuguese language is kindred to the Spanish, with some mixture of Arabian words, to which has also been added an infusion of French under the Burgundian dynasty. It is upon the whole more fit for conversation

not long in accepting the challenge. They rushed at one another, and the bull by raising his head higher than the other had expected, struck his antagonist on the head, and he fell apparently lifeless on the arena. Others provoked him anew, and occupied his attention till the wounded forcador was carried off by his comrades. Proud of this exploit, the infuriated animal chased them about in all directions. Darts were showered into his neck, flags were cast before him; he pawed the ground; the dust rose in volumes around the animal, and every nerve and muscle seemed suffering with agony. When allowed a moment's respite, he took up his position in the middle of the arena, beating his sides with his long bushy tail, alternately inhaling the air in large draughts, and expelling it with distended nostrils and a loud noise from his heaving chest. At one time he would spread out his fore-feet, nearly touching the ground with his breast (somewhat like a cat or dog stretching itself)—at another he would raise his head and shoulders, repressing his hinder extremities, and seemed to try every position to obtain relief. His tormentor again renewed the attack, and continued to harass him till he was sufficiently exhausted, when the forcadors collected around, fell upon him in a body and led him from the ground.

The third bull had blue and red ribands at his horns, as a token that he was destined to death. He was a small, well-shaped, active animal, and entered with much spirit. He ran at the picador, who after avoiding him for some time, at last struck a dart into his neck and retreated. Red scarfs were cast before the bull for the purpose of amusing him till the rider was prepared to renew the attack. He watched the opportunity, and broke another dart in his neck. The bull pursued him around the arena, and as the horse made a quick turn, struck him below the belly, nearly overturned him, and brought his rider to the ground with great violence. He appeared quite stunned by the fall, and was carried off by the forcadors. The bull pursued the horse, struck him a second time in the same place, but was immediately attracted by scarfs and flags till a gate could be opened, and the horse allowed to escape. Another picador soon entered on a fresh horse, and seemed determined to make amends for the defeat of his comrade. After having stuck some half-dozen darts into him, and fatigued him sufficiently, he retired from the scene, and left the work of torment to the capinhas. One of them took two darts, prepared with squibs and crackers, set fire to them, and sent them hissing into his neck. The astonished animal started with terror, tossed up his head, shook his neck, ran rubbing against the barrier, and tried every means to shake them off. He repeatedly returned to the gate by which he had entered, but finding no outlet, he vented his rage in rushing against the forks of the forcadors, and in chasing over the barrier every capinha that waited his approach. This animal made a noble resistance, but it was all in vain. Three dogs were let loose. One seized him by one ear, another by the nose, and the third by the other ear. The forcadors then went up and pulled off the dogs, the matador approached with his red flag in the left hand, and a spear three feet long in the right, stood before him, and held out the flag. The bull made a push at it, and received the spear in the spine of the neck. This was decisive and soon put an end to his sufferings. He stood quivering for a few seconds in the midst of his pursuers, but on finding all was over, and wishing, like Cæsar, to die gracefully, he knelt down on one leg, and was in the act of bending the other, but the approaches of death were too rapid, and he fell down on his side. Thunders of applause resounded from every part of the theatre, the band struck up a lively air, and the matador made a bow of acknowledgment to the spectators. The dead bull was immediately dragged out by four mules, with two black riders in fantastic various coloured dresses, with caps and feathers resembling those worn by North American savages.

The fifth was a small, well-shaped bull, with a quick eye, and one likely to afford sport. The picador Real claimed him as his own. The contest began with great spirit, and was continued so for at least five minutes. The picador rode boldly up to him, broke a dart in his neck, and was saved from his fury by one of the capinhas, who decoyed him from the horse and rider, and then made his escape over the barrier. The picador again rode up—the bull met him and received another dart, which stopped him a little. This operation was repeated four or five times without a failure. When the rider misses his aim, the consequence is often serious, as the horse has not time to turn and escape before the bull attacks him. This was the case once on this occasion. The rider after missing wheeled his horse about, but unluckily in the direction which the bull had taken, and the infuriated animal struck the horse on the side with such violence that he fell to the ground. The picador was on the point of being dismounted when others came to his relief. The horse recovered himself, and he kept his seat to the great delight of the spectators, who expressed their joy by repeated *bravos* and loud clapping of hands. The capinhas then engaged in the fight, one of whom too missed his aim, fell on the ground, and the bull trampled over

than the Spanish. The Portuguese language is almost the only remaining monument of the former greatness of this country, as it is still the general language of commerce in a great part of India and Africa.

Poetry must be considered as the principal branch of Portuguese literature, for good prose cannot be expected in a country where philosophy and criticism are unknown. The golden age of Portuguese literature was in the time of Emanuel and John III. It gradually decayed after the entry of the Jesuits into the kingdom, and the establishment of Spanish domination. The first kings of the house of Braganza did nothing for the encouragement of science or literature. It was only under the three last governments that a taste for scientific pursuits began to reappear, and the nation to awake from the apathy in which it had lain for three centuries. The most ancient Portuguese poets flourished in the 12th century, and their poetry was cultivated before that of Castile. The earliest poets known to us are Gonzalo Hermiguez, and Egaz Moniz, whose songs are now almost unintelligible even to a native. In the 13th century the language became more cultivated, and king Denis, who reigned in the latter part of this century, encouraged literature and was himself a poet. Alphonso IV. and Pedro I. are named as poets of the 14th century, and about this time too Italian poetry began to exercise an influence on the literature of Portugal. In the 15th century—the heroic age of Portugal—her literature rivalled that of Spain. The first celebrated Portuguese poet was Bernardim Ribeyro, who flourished under the great Emanuel, in the end of the 15th and the beginning of the 16th centuries. It is remarkable that several distinguished Portuguese poets wrote in the Castilian language when they intended to celebrate any important event. This was the case with Franc. de Sà de Miranda, who died in 1558. Among the other poets of this epoch were Antonio Ferreira, Pedro de Andrade Caminha, and Diego Bernardes Pimenta. The most celebrated Portuguese poet, who wrote the first epic poem in his country's literature, is Luis de Camoens. His Lusiad is the gem of Portuguese poetry; it was written when he was an exile at Macao, and breathes all the beauty and luxury of the East.

him without any apparent injury. By this time he had, at least, eight darts in his neck, and seemed sufficiently exhausted, when there was a general call of *fora, fora!* 'out, out!' A grey-headed forcador, apparently about fifty years of age, but of a slender make and great agility, immediately turned out to the middle of the arena, held out his arms to attract the notice of the bull, which ran at him, when he threw himself between his horns; and notwithstanding the tossing and plunging of the animal, kept him fast by the neck till relieved by his comrades. Thunders of applause followed, and the forcador went round bowing to the spectators, many of whom showered down *crusados novos*, and other smaller coins, as a reward for his bravery. In the mean time the rest led him off the ground.

The seventh and eighth bulls afforded little sport. The ninth, which was the last, had the blue and red ribands at his horns. After undergoing the usual torture, from darts and squibs and crackers, he was left to the matador. He came forward with the red flag in one hand, and the spear in the other, aimed a blow at his neck, but struck him on the shoulder, and the blood flowed in torrents. He ran about the arena for some time in this state. A second thrust took effect. He staggered backwards a few steps, quivered for a moment and then fell to the ground. Many of the spectators left their seats, and leapt into the arena. The boys scrambled for the ribands at his horns, and some of them sat on the body as the mules with their savage-looking riders dragged it from the scene.

To the credit of the Lisbon women, very few were present. There were a few ladies, or rather women in the dress of ladies, in the boxes; a great number of English officers, and indeed, if one might judge from dress, a great many of the most respectable inhabitants of Lisbon. The fights lasted about two hours, and during that time ten bulls were tortured or killed, so that each fight continued for twelve minutes. The box tickets are about 5s. Those of the galleries in the shade 2s. 3d. and in the sun 1s. 1½d.

This great poet, the ornament of his country and of Europe, died in an hospital at Lisbon in 1579, in the 62d year of his age. Gil. Vicente, a Portuguese dramatic poet, preceded Lope de Vega and Calderona in Spain. Amongst the poets of the 18th and 19th centuries, are Franc. Xav. de Meneses, count of Ericeyra, Jose Basilio da Gama, Claude Manuel, and Manuel Maria de Barbosa du Bocage, who, like Camoens, died in an hospital at Lisbon in 1805. Among the living poets we distinguish Jose Monteiro da Rocha and Mozinho d'Albuquerque. There are some distinguished *Improvisatori* among the Portuguese. As for prose, theology is of course entirely bound down in this country to simple obedience and faith in the Church's decrees. Except prayer-books and casuistical treatises, nothing new ever appears in this science; and though there are systems and compendiums of theology in the language, they are full of the darkness of the middle ages. However, a translation of the Bible in 23 volumes has been written by Antonio Pereira de Figueredo; and the Portuguese Jesuit Ant. Vieira, has been called the Bourdaloue of Portugal. In medicine, the Portuguese are mostly followers of the British physicians, of whose writings many have been translated. Pombal banished moral philosophy from the Portuguese academies; and at Coimbra not even the chairs of logic and metaphysics were allowed to remain. Since his time, indeed, the philosophical faculty has been re-established, but no distinguished professor or author has yet appeared in this science. Philological science is in a sad state; the Latin of the monks is unintelligible to any other European nation, and Greek was not taught at all till very lately. Mathematics were entirely neglected till the middle of the 18th century. For geography the Portuguese have done much by their discoveries; in national geography, Lima, Nipho, Cornide, and Barros are distinguished; but it is to foreigners that we are indebted for the best geographical notices of this country, and there is not even a good map of Portugal drawn by a native. Several valuable works have been written in natural history and botany. Loureiros' *Flora Cochinginensis* is a very distinguished work. In history the works of Joao de Barros, Jer. Osorio, Fernando Lopez de Castanhedo, Bern. de Brito, and Telles de Silva, are the most deserving of notice. Architecture, sculpture, and painting have never prospered on Portuguese soil. Their music has a peculiar character, which is particularly prominent in their *Medinhas* or songs. Literary periodicals do not exist in this country; new works are announced in the *Gazeta de Lisbon*, the only political newspaper which is allowed to appear in Portugal. It is said that among the three millions of inhabitants of this country there are perhaps not above 500 readers of scientific works. Balbi estimates that from 1801 to 1809, only 1800 works were printed in this country. All the best foreign works are prohibited; and the smallest line of print is submitted to a censorship. The Inquisition has 14 censors; the Patriarch employs 12; and here there are 17 *censores librorum regii.* The astronomical and nautical ephemerides, an accurate royal almanack, and a weekly journal called *Almocreve de Petas,* form the only periodical works.

Education.] Education may easily be supposed to be extremely defective in this country. It is, for the most part, in the hands of monks, who themselves ignorant and bigotted, cannot be supposed to make their scholars intelligent or liberal. The only university now existing is at Coimbra. It was founded in 1291, by Denis, one of the first kings of Portugal who encouraged literature. There is a small college at Evora founded in 1533.

At Lisbon, as has been already mentioned, there is a college consecrated solely to the education of the nobility. The Royal Academy of Sciences at Lisbon was founded in 1779. This academy is divided into three classes; one devoted to the sciences, the other two to subjects of economy and elegant literature. There are about 800 elementary schools in this kingdom.

Religion.] The religion of Portugal is the Roman Catholic in its strictest form. An attention to trivial ceremonies is very common among both sexes: for ignorance generally mistakes ceremony for religion. The clergy are almost universally ignorant and vicious, and by their example tend much to corrupt the manners of their flocks. The Portuguese have a patriarch who is considered as acting in a subordinate capacity to the pope, except when his countrymen have quarrelled with the Roman pontiff. He is generally a cardinal and a person of high birth; but his powers are not great. Besides the patriarch there are 2 archbishops and 10 bishops; but if the foreign settlements be taken into account, the number of bishops is 22. The number of parishes appears to be 4,262. The number of convents amounts to 418, and the nunneries are about 150. There are 22,000 secular clergy, 14,000 monks, and 10,000 nuns in the kingdom.

CHAP. IV.—GOVERNMENT—REVENUE—MARINE AND MILITARY FORCE—COMMERCE.

Although, since the phantom of the Three Estates in this kingdom traitorously declared the crown of Portugal to belong to Miguel, the charter itself has become a sort of umbrella to the usurper, as that of France was to Louis XVIII., it is almost unnecessary to say that its provisions are a mere dead letter. This constitutional charter, in 145 articles, arranged under 8 titles, attempted to draw the line between the executive and legislative power, and to define specifically the rights of the people. To the king were reserved the prerogatives of making peace and war, with the exception that any treaty which might exchange or cede any part of the territory or possessions of the crown should be ratified by the Cortes; to bestow honours and grant pensions, the latter, when given at the public charge, being dependent on the approbation of the Cortes; to nominate to all ecclesiastical dignities, and to all civil and military offices; to convoke the Cortes, either at the stated time of assembling, or, if circumstances should require it, in an extraordinary meeting; to prorogue and dissolve them when he should think proper; and to give the force of laws to their decrees, by adhibiting his consent. In imitation of the constitution given to the jealous Brazilians, this charter provided that, if the king should quit the kingdom without the consent of the Cortes, he should be held to have abdicated the crown.

To the Cortes, as the legislative body, was declared to belong the right to appoint, in case of the minority of the heir, a regency, and define its powers, and to acknowledge the prince royal to be heir of the throne in the first session which should be held after his birth—a provision which seemed superfluous, if hereditary succession was to be a fundamental principle of the constitution, and implied a power in the Cortes of changing the dynasty, or at least, the order of the dynasty, at every new accession. To them, likewise, it belonged on the death of the king, or in the event of the

throne being vacant, to establish a Council of Administration;—to inquire into and reform abuses which might have been introduced;—to make laws, and to interpret, suspend, or revoke them;—to watch over the constitution, and provide for the general good of the nation;—to fix annually the public expenses, and apportion the direct taxes; to grant or refuse entrance to foreign forces, by land or by sea, into the interior of the kingdom, or into its ports;—to fix annually and according to the report of government, the land and sea-forces, ordinary and extraordinary;—to authorize the government to contract loans;—to establish proper resources for the payment of the public debt;—to regulate the administration of the national domains, and decree their alienation;—to create or suppress public offices, and to fix their emoluments;—to determine the weight, value, inscription, and denomination of monies, as well as the standard of weights and measures.

The Cortes, by whom these powers were to be exercised, was to consist of two chambers, a chamber of Peers, and a chamber of deputies, the approbation of both being necessary to the making of laws. The peers were deprived of their right of exemption from taxation, and were declared to be the only judges in impeachments of public servants. The number of representatives to be elected to the chamber of deputies, and the mode of their election, were not provided for by the charter, but it laid down the general qualifications to be required in a voter, and provided, after the example of America, and the revolutionary Cortes of Spain, and of Portugal in 1822, that the deputies should be re-imbursed for their expenses in travelling to and from Lisbon, and receive a daily sum for their attendance. In the judicial department, trial by jury was introduced; it was declared that the judges should not be removeable at the will of the crown; and torture, the use of the lash, and branding with hot iron, were formally abolished. The Roman Catholic religion was declared to be the religion of the State; the exercise of all others was indeed allowed, but only on the condition of not being performed in any building distinguishable as a church. The general rights and liberties of the people were embodied in declarations that all were equal in the eye of the law, bound equally to defend the state by military service, and to contribute to its revenue; that every man's house was inviolable; that no citizen should be obliged to do, or be hindered from doing, any thing whatever, unless by virtue of a law; that no law should have a retrospective effect; that every one might communicate his thoughts, whether verbally or by writing, and publish them in print, being responsible for any abuses which he might commit in the exercise of this right, according to the forms determined by the law; that no person should be persecuted for the sake of religion, as long as he respected that of the State, and did not offend public morality; that every man might remain in the kingdom, or depart from it, and carry with him all his property, conforming, nevertheless, to police regulations.

Laws.] The laws of Portugal are not distinguished by many peculiarities. They are founded upon the Roman law, the canon law, the edicts of the king, and the mandates of the pope. Theft may be four times repeated before it become a capital crime. Adultery in a woman is punishable by death; but this law is never put into execution.

Orders of Knighthood.] The Portuguese orders of knighthood are five: viz. the order of Christ founded in 1319, of which the badge is a red cross within one that is white; the order of St James, originally instituted in 1030, of which the badge is a red sword, in the form of a cross; the order of Avis founded in 1147, which has for a badge a green cross

in the form of a lily; the order of St John founded in 1157; and the order of the Tower and Sword founded in 1459. These orders have numerous commanderies.

Church Government.] The Inquisition was formerly established in this kingdom with the same rigour as in Spain; but, as in that kingdom, government has assumed the power into its own hands and uses it chiefly for its own purposes. There are 3 tribunals of inquisition at Lisbon, Coimbra, and Evora. The censorship is committed to the officers of the Inquisition. The Portuguese have a patriarch, who is considered as acting in a subordinate capacity to the pope. He is generally a cardinal, and a person of high birth; but his powers are not great. The clergy are divided into high and low; to the former belong the patriarch and the archbishops and bishops, who are all named by the king, the pope only confirming them. The king draws also a quarter of the revenue of the archbishops and bishops, which sum is usually applied to the support of the patriarchate. The lower clergy are divided into secular and regular; the former, as in almost all catholic States, are very poor, and enjoy neither the consideration nor the influence of the regular clergy, who here form 7 spiritual corporations, including 30 convents and 3 colleges, and 35 different orders, possessing not less than 418 monasteries, and 150 nunneries, many of them richly endowed, and holding extensive landed property. However, the orders of mendicants are the most numerous. The number of convents has recently increased, and the whole number of persons belonging to the clergy is said to be about 200,000, almost every 15th person belonging to the priesthood!

Revenue.] The revenue of Portugal is more considerable than might be expected from the feeble state of the kingdom: writers, however, are not unanimous in their calculations of the amount, some making it upwards of £3,000,000; others, only £2,000,000. The latter calculation is certainly below the truth, since the sources from which the revenue is derived are numerous, and all the duties are extremely high. Balbi's estimate of £2,231,000, seems pretty near the truth. The chief sources of the royal income, are the lands belonging to the Braganza family, the royal demesnes, the coinage, the profits of indulgencies granted by the Pope, the masterships of the orders of knighthood, and very heavy duties imposed on almost every article of commerce. These taxes are in general farmed or let to the highest bidders,—a mode of collecting taxes of all others the most oppressive and unjust. The expenses of the government are not great. Balbi estimates the national debt at £6,598,000, of which above £1,500,000 consists of government paper, which is always at a discount of from 14 to 20 per cent. The late Cortes established a national bank at Lisbon, but the infant establishment issued its paper so profusely as to impair its credit, and to cause it to stop payment in a very short time.

Marine and Military Force.] The following account of the Portuguese army and navy is given by Balbi. The numerous militia which Portugal possesses is formed of the land-owners and farmers, and their sons, between the ages of 18 and 40. All persons in the civil service of the crown, students, public teachers, physicians, and surgeons, and a certain number of apprentices in particular manufactories, are exempted from this service. The militia receive no pay unless they are out on active service; they are generally called together about once a month, for the purpose of exercising them in military manœuvring. The militia officers are

chosen from among the richest inhabitants, with the exception of the major and adjutant of each regiment, and they are always officers of the regular army. A major-general is the inspector of all the militia of the kingdom. Besides him there are two other inspectors—one for Minho and the town of Oporto, and the other for Beira and Tras-os-Montes. The whole of the militia is divided into 48 regiments, which are of equal strength with the regiments of the troops of the line: and besides these, there are six corps of militia for the city of Lisbon, which were established in the year 1808, and are called the *milicias novas*. All the inhabitants of the kingdom who do not serve in the militia, nor in the regular army, nor belong to the order of burghers, and who are between the ages of 18 and 40, are compelled to serve in the *ordenanças*,—or levee en masse. The army in the year 1822 was almost double in number what it was in the year 1796, and consisted of 26 regiments of infantry, each in two battalions: 12 battalions of jägers, 12 regiments of cavalry, each in four squadrons; four regiments of artillery; one battalion of engineers; and one corps of baggage-soldiers, and a veteran corps. The north, the central, and the south divisions of the kingdom have equal number of troops, with equal numbers of arms; but the southern division, in consequence of the great number of strong places, has a greater number of pieces of artillery than the others. Each division is under a field-marshal or lieutenant-general. The artillery is always in parks, and is divided among the fortresses and corps. Each species of arms is under the care of a superintendant. At the abolition of the *ordenanças* by the Cortes, the army procured its recruits by lot from these classes of the people. The requisite age is from 18 to 30 years. Since 1812 the militia also takes its recruits from the *ordenanças*, from the age of 18 to 35; the men are discharged from the militia at the age of 45. The Portuguese army in the year 1811 amounted to not less than 335,439 men in the ranks; in the year 1812, to 108,429. At the peace of 1814, 69,268; in 1816, independent of 3,028 veterans, 59,325; in 1821 only 21,816. At present, the whole of the Portuguese army does not amount to above 26,000 soldiers. The fleet consists of four sail of the line, seven frigates, and eighteen smaller vessels.

Commerce.] The situation of Portugal with regard to commerce is not less favourable than that of Spain. It might maintain an intercourse with every quarter of the world more easily than almost any other country in Europe. The industry and commerce of the Portuguese were formerly in some degree equal to the advantages of their situation; but they have long ceased to be considerable. The same causes which produced or accelerated the ruin of Spain have operated in a similar manner in Portugal. The sudden accumulation of wealth from their foreign possessions, acquired without the tedious process of industry, tended to destroy that spirit without which a nation cannot be permanently powerful. The foolish policy of prohibiting, or at least heavily taxing the exportation of the precious metals, depreciated their value; and gave the other manufacturing nations an advantage with which neither Spain nor Portugal could contend. The capricious and impolitic impositions on the sale of commodities, and their carriage from one part of the country to another, still farther depressed internal industry; and that depravity of government which induces it to favour the great at the expense of the humble tradesman, almost completely annihilated that spirit of enterprise which is necessary to the healthy existence of trade.

The manufactures of Portugal are not extensive. They consist chiefly

of some woollen cloth, which is made at Covilham, Portalegre, and Azeitao. Hats and paper are made at Lisbon; but the quantity is not considerable. Portugal does not furnish the manufactures which are necessary for its own consumption and that of its colonies, these are received chiefly from Britain, and consist principally of woollen goods and hardware. Salted and dried fish are likewise received from Britain to a considerable amount; besides a great quantity furnished by the United States. The exports amount to about £2,500,000. To Britain, the exports from Portugal consist chiefly of its native produce, and partly of the commodities imported from the colonies; amongst the former are wine, oil, oranges, lemons, figs, different kinds of fruits, cork, and drugs; among the latter, are cotton, sugar, tobacco, gold, silver, pearls, precious stones, grain, dye-woods, drugs, and many other articles. Besides the trade which Portugal conducts with Britain, a trifling commerce is carried on with Denmark, Germany, France, and Holland. The trade with the American States is not very extensive, and is conducted in American vessels.

As Portugal has little internal commerce, it is not to be expected that any care should be taken to render intercourse easy by the formation of navigable canals; and, even although the internal commerce were considerable, canals would hardly be necessary, since the country extends along the sea-shore, and is intersected by several considerable rivers. The roads are wretchedly bad. In some places, the traveller is obliged to abandon the ancient line altogether, and to find a new track for himself the best way he can; by cautiously picking his steps over bare rocks, or treading knee-deep among barren sands over the steep mountains, and through the extensive pine groves, in which he must steer his course. The only benefit in such cases which he derives from the labours of his ancestors, or the care of cotemporary authorities, is the use of a ruinous bridge over the rivulet or stream of some deep ravine, which, without such an accommodation, would be impassable.

CHAP. V.—TOPOGRAPHY—ESTREMADURA.

PORTUGAL has from a very early period been divided into 6 provinces, of which only one, Tras os Montes, does not touch the sea; and another, Estremadura, does not border upon Spain.

1*st. The Province of Estremadura.*] Antillon estimates the population of this province at 826,680 souls, a calculation which is adopted by Cortambert; but Hassel remarks that this must be an error of print, for, according to Antillon's own calculation—who reckons 5 persons upon one hearth, and states the number of hearths at 175,337—the population must amount to 876,685. Chatelet reckons it at only 620,000; and Murphy at 635,000: while Hassel says 701,348; the last census made by order of government makes it 652,490. The inhabitants of this province are considered the best looking and most civilized of the Portuguese; the language is also thought to be the purest and most elegant of the country. The Tejo divides the province into two unequal parts. That to the N. of the river, though mountainous, has large valleys, and is, in those places which have water, very fertile; the coasts are steep and have but few bays;—there are here two projecting capes, Cabo Carvoeiro, or Ponta de Peniche, and Cabo de Roca, the most wes-

tern point of the European continent. Of the part lying to the S. of the Tejo, only the northern part is fertile; in the southern the soil consists of deep white sand, moors, and swamps. The coast is steep and rugged to the N. of Setuval; to the S. of that point the shores are low. The mountains are a continuation of the Spanish Sierras de Guadarrama, de Guadaloupe, and Morena. The principal river is the Tejo, of which the Zezene, the Lamaraza, and the Sorraya, are tributaries; the coast-rivers are the Lena, and the Sado which is navigable. There are some small lakes and several mineral springs. The climate is hot, but cooled by the N.E. winds. In the neighbourhood of Lisbon an everlasting spring seems to exist; and snow and ice are only seen for a few weeks on the summit of the highest mountains. The air is everywhere healthy, but earthquakes are frequent. Part of the calcareous mountains, and the valleys to the N. of the Tejo, rival in fertility the finest huertas of the S. of Spain; and even the mountains and heaths on the S. of the Tejo might easily be put into cultivation if agriculture were better understood. But this province, which might easily support double its present population, scarcely yields two-thirds of its consumption. Wine and olives are the principal produce. Very fine fruit, chesnuts, oranges, and lemons are grown in abundance. Silk-worms and bees are not kept, though the country offers every facility for their introduction. Salt is principally made from a salt spring at Rio Magen, and also from sea-water in the neighbourhood of Setuval.

City of Lisbon.] Lisbon, the metropolis of Portugal, is situated upon the north bank of the Tagus, about 10 miles from its mouth. The river here expands to the breadth of 9 miles, and forms an excellent harbour said to be capable of sheltering 10,000 sail of ships. The appearance of Lisbon at a distance, particularly on crossing the river from the south-east, is extremely picturesque and majestic. The city rises gradually from the shore, and extends along the river in the form of an amphitheatre to the length of four miles, and is from a mile to a mile and a half in breadth. Some parts of the city, particularly those lately built, do not disappoint the expectations raised by its appearance at a distance; but a great number of the streets are narrow, irregular, and ill-built, and they are kept in a horribly dirty state. In 1755, a great part of this city was destroyed by an earthquake: the loss of lives was computed at upwards of 30,000. Many years elapsed before Lisbon recovered from the calamity, and the traces of it are still visible in many places.[2] To the

[2] Many natives yet remember the morning of *All Saints*, 1755. It was a beautiful bright 1st of November. The earth trembled at short intervals for a year. During the whole of November the shocks were so violent as to cause every day an apprehension of a renewed calamity. Lisbon was reduced to a heap of ruins. In the lower part of the town not a street could be traced but by the fragments of broken walls, and the accumulation of ashes and rubbish. Palaces, churches, convents, and private houses, streets and squares, appeared as if the angel of desolation had just passed by. At night the city was deserted by the surviving inhabitants, and only infested by robbers who proceeded in gangs to break open and plunder. The heights around Lisbon were so covered with tents, that they seemed a continued encampment. It is a curious fact, that the houses were in general high before the fatal day of All Saints, 1755, and that they were all rebuilt of the same height, notwithstanding the increased danger in case of such a calamity. The great aqueduct over the valley of Alcantara remained entirely unshaken, though its height is so great and its line of arches so extensive. It was remarked, that in the first day's catastrophe the inferior animals seemed to partake of the panic terrors of man; the dogs howled, and the horses trembled and snorted the whole of the night between the 1st and 2d of November. It is also stated that during the month of November, while the earth continued to tremble twice or thrice a day, the tides did not observe their proverbial regularity, the flow sometimes continuing for seven or eight hours instead of six, and the time of the ebb being proportionably diminished. The water of all springs and rivers is likewise stated to have

north of the city is the aqueduct, which is a great architectural curiosity. There are 13 squares, of which the most remarkable is the *Praca de Commercio*, so named from being the residence of a number of merchants, and containing the Exchange, Custom-house, and the India House. In front are the principal quays, which excel in beauty any thing of the kind in London or Paris. This square is 200 yards long and 180 broad, and has an equestrian statue of Joseph I. in the centre. Lisbon is the see of an archbishop, and contains 40 parish churches, 99 chapels, and 75 convents or monasteries. The patriarchal church is very magnificent, and is said to have an annual revenue of £114,000. Lisbon is well-provided with public charities. The Royal hospital is an excellent institution: the number of patients admitted in a year frequently amounts to 12 or 15,000. The Foundling-hospital is also on a very extensive scale. Lisbon has a royal library of 80,000 volumes, three observatories, two theatres, several public walks, and a circus for exhibiting bull-fights. Russel estimates the population at 230,000, including a very great number of foreigners, and 30,000 Gallicians, Balbi states it at 260,000 in 1826. There are between six and seven thousand *quintas* or country-houses in the suburbs. It was the birth place of Camoens, Ribeyro and Cominha. The mouth of the Tagus is guarded by Fort St Julian on the N., and Fort Bugio on the S. of the bar, or rather in the middle of the entrance into the river about four leagues below Lisbon. The sand is so much accumulated to the south of Bugio, that the bar is nearly dry at low water, and at no time of the tide can any but boats and small craft enter the Tagus on that side. The only passage up the river, therefore, lies between the two forts, towards the middle of the channel. Bugio at a distance has the appearance of the English martello-towers. It has bomb-proof quarters, and is constructed in the most solid manner; but the defence of this part of the river would mainly depend upon Fort St Julian. In every case, a hostile fleet must

become turbid or muddy, without rain or a flood. The conflagration, the sea, and the earthquake destroyed 29 parish, besides 5 subsidiary churches, the churches or dormitories of 25 convents and 20 nunneries, the royal palace, the custom-house, the India-house, and 24 palaces of the nobility, the palace of the Inquisition, of the tribunals, and the public offices of the kingdom. Neither the vaulted roof, nor the buttressed wall, nor the massy tower could resist the shock. The cathedral fell, and buried under its ruins 70,000 marks of consecrated silver plate, and a great quantity of precious jewels. The property of all kinds consumed or ingulfed was of immense value, and is dwelt upon with wondering lamentation by all the historians of the catastrophe. A native author gives the following account of the superstition of the people, who scarce required such a calamity to call forth its display. "There wandered among the ruins, friars and priests in their canonical habits, absolving the dying, and encouraging the survivors, who called for the men of God, and the aid of his most holy mother. Others went to the fields and exhorted sinners to repentance and contrition. Even women and common citizens became preachers. All dreaded the wrath of God, and trembled for the total destruction of the human race. Their hearts were softened by religious exercises, and their numberless offences were washed out with floods of tears. While the body trembled for its sins, the soul burned with the love of God, and his saints. All the day (in the quarter of the town where he lived,) devout families and congregations flocked to implore succour from the miraculous image of the virgin, entitled our lady of Penha de Franca, some barefooted, and all with pious prostrations of mind. At the setting of the sun, the night which always appears sad, now seemed horrible—no bells were ringing, no clocks striking. The scene inspired melancholy even into dumb animals. Dead bodies lay unburied in the churches, in the streets, and among the rubbish. Many who had been wounded and bruised, recovered when dug from the ruins. Some were saved after being three or four days among the rubbish, and one man after nine days' interment." The fire almost totally consumed the houses within a space of more than a league in circumference, of the most crowded part of the capital, and ruined 7 out of the 12 *bairros* into which it was then divided. The earthquake, he calculates, threw down more than the tenth of all the houses, and the flames destroyed more than the third.

enter the Tagus within the destructive range of its guns. It is founded on an elevated projecting rock, and has five irregular bulwarks, with a ravelin towards the land-side. At present, it mounts 86 pieces of artillery, with space for working many more, and is said to be capable of accommodating 3000 men, in bomb-proof quarters. Unfortunately, it has within its circuit no spring of water, and depends for its supply on the rain collected in tanks. Around the coast, at the entry of the Tagus, and on its northern bank, a Portuguese writer enumerates no less than 57 batteries. The chief, beside the two above described, are those of Peniche, Cascaes, Belem, and Lisbon. The banks of the river, from the capital to Fort St Julian, are high or sloping, and, along the whole of the line of road, are studded with towns, villages, and villas.—About a mile from the fort is the town of Oeyras, from which the celebrated marquis of Pombal took his title of count, in which he built a palace, and around which his family possesses extensive property.—A little to the west of the fort is the town of Carcavellos, which is said to produce the wine that goes by that name in London. The soil around is entirely a mass of sand: the quantity of wine, both red and white, made in the neighbourhood, is considerable, and in general of an excellent quality, but it bears no resemblance to the sweet, cloying, treacley beverage which generally passes under that designation in England. Some of the farmers in the village make between 80 and 100 pipes; and one landed proprietor in the neighbourhood used to make 400. It is sold by retail in the cellars at 4 vintins a quart, or about 2d. a bottle. A pipe of the best quality may be bought for £7 or £8 sterling. It has been of late years sold at so low a price, that some of the vineyards have been broken up and sown with corn, for which the soil is by no means adapted. All along the coast towards the ridge of Cintra, the country seems, both from its exposure and the nature of the soil, to be well-adapted for vineyards and orchards, though the land is not so fertile as on the other side of the ridge, where water is more abundant, and the vegetable mould deeper. The ridge itself is about 10 miles from the fort; but it rises so abruptly, and displays so bold an outline, that it appears much nearer, and forms a striking object in the landscape. Its numerous bare sharp summits are distinctly traced,—its towering pinnacles, composed of loose blocks of granite, apparently thrown together at different periods, and carelessly piled on each other, like the *tumulus* of some giant are seen as if within reach,—and the eye surveys at one glance, leaning against the western sky, the whole rugged outline of the mountain, from its commencement, in the precipitous eminence crowned with the *Convento da Penha*, till it descends into the sea by the rounder and tamer promontory called by sailors the *Rock of Lisbon*.—The town of Leiria or Leyria, with 7,000 inhabitants, is beautifully situated in the midst of a narrow valley. It is the see of a bishop. Here is a famous annual fair. In the town there are no less than five or six convents, any one of which, together with its church, would be nearly sufficient to contain the half of the inhabitants.—The convent of Batalha, the finest Gothic structure in Portugal, and perhaps one of the most striking in the world, is distant about two leagues from Leyria.—Alcobaça, about the distance of twelve miles, is the richest monastic establishment now in Portugal, or in the world. The magnificence of its kitchen alone, more than 100 feet long, and traversed by the water of eight fountains, would supply a subject for an ordinary volume of travels. It shelters under its roof, and maintains by its revenues, upwards of 70 fa-

thers, and about 600 domestics and labourers of all sorts; its domains extend more than twenty miles in one direction, and fifteen in another; it includes in the circuit of its sway thirteen market-towns and large villages; it has two sea-ports, and as many fortresses, within its territory; its monks are generally Fidalgos, and these Fidalgos are considered in their corporate capacity more richly endowed than the representatives of the royal family of Portugal. At Maffra, the monastic establishment, which in the time of its founder amounted to more than 300, is now reduced to 42. They are Franciscans—have no revenues but a pension from the crown, which they complain is now reduced to 12,000 new crowns, and they possess the range of the royal Tapada or park, which is 12 miles in circumference. Their revenues do not much exceed their allowance.—Berlenga is an island on the coast with a tower, in which a garrison is kept.—Santarem is a town of 8,000 inhabitants.—Setuval contains 12,000 inhabitants.

CHAP. VI.—THE PROVINCE OF BEIRA.

Antillon gives the population of Beira at 1,121,595 souls. Hassel gives only 898,596, upon the approximation of 4 individuals to each fireplace, the last census makes it 904,270. This province is mountainous; the mountains are a continuation of the Spanish Sierra de Guadarrama, among which rises the rugged Sierra de Estrella to the height of 7,000 or 8,000 feet above the level of the sea. On the summit is a large plain, 3 leagues long and 1 broad, which is covered with snow from October to January, and contains 4 lakes. The principal river is the Douro; the Tejo only touches the southern boundaries. The coast-rivers are the Mondego and the Vonga. There are several mineral springs and sulphurous hot-baths. The climate is mild in the valleys. Agriculture is quite neglected, and the produce is not sufficient for the home-consumption. Wine is grown in great quantity, and no province of Portugal produces so much oil.

Chief Towns.] The chief town is Coimbra, the seats of a bishop and of a tribunal of the inquisition. It has about 15,000 inhabitants, a library of 60,000 volumes, and a very good botanical garden. It was the birthplace of the poet Franc. Şaa de Miranda. Near to this place, on the Mondego, lies the Quinta de Lagrimas, or 'house of tears,' where Ines de Castro was imprisoned and murdered.—Aveiro has 7,000 inhabitants.—Lamego is a town of 6,000 inhabitants.—Guarda has 3,535 inhabitants.—Caminha, at the junction of the Douro and Minho, is a fishing-town of 2,500 inhabitants.

CHAP. VII.—THE PROVINCE OF ENTRE DOURO E MINHO.

Antillon calculates the population of Minho at 907,965 souls; Barros at 1,123,495; Ebeling at 817,167; the last census states it at 750,820. The inhabitants are very active and industrious, and this province is well protected by natural boundaries from becoming the theatre of war. It lies between the two rivers from which it takes its name, and is a high tableland, through which several ridges of mountains run from N.E. to S.W. The highest chain is the Sierra de Gerez, a continuation of the Cantabrian

mountains; its hills and valleys are covered with vineyards which produce the port-wine. The soil is very fertile, and the climate excellent. The Douro forms the boundaries between this province and Beira; the N. boundary is formed by the Minho. The Lima is a coast-river, and so is the Cavado. There are several mineral springs. This province is considered as the most delightful in the country. "If there is an Elysium upon earth," says a Portuguese poet, "it must be here; and if there is none, there should at least be one here."

Chief Towns.] The chief town is Braga, with 14,000 inhabitants. At a little distance from Braga is the magnificent Sanctuario do Com. Jesus do Monte.—Porto, or Oporto, on the Douro, has about 70,000 inhabitants. It stands upon the side of a hill in a situation naturally strong. The harbour, which is formed by the Douro, is excellent. The appearance of the city is not elegant; the houses are mean, the streets narrow, and even the churches, which in Catholic countries are generally rich if not elegant, are not remarkable. The British merchants have in this place a large and commodious factory. Oporto is a place of considerable trade. From it is brought the wine which is called *Port*. Besides wine, the chief articles of commerce are oranges, lemons, and other kinds of fruit. To the American colonies this city sends linen-cloth, and various other commodities. Porto existed in the 5th century; but its flourishing state dates only from the 18th. At the village of Lameira are some hot sulphureous springs, and the remains of Roman baths.—Viana, a town of 8,000 inhabitants, has an extensive fishery.

CHAP. VIII.—THE PROVINCE OF TRAS OS MONTES.

ANTILLON states the population of this province at 318,665, and the census at 267,750. This is the most elevated part of the kingdom. The highest chain is the Serra do Montezinho.[3] These mountains are absolutely barren, being only covered with gigantic heath. The principal river is the Douro. There are some mineral springs. The climate is cooler than in any other part of Portugal; on the banks of the Douro it is warmer, but along the rivers there are constant fogs which make the climate unhealthy, particularly to foreigners. The soil is not bad, and is in some parts pretty well cultivated by the industrious population. Wine is the staple ware. There are few cattle; more silk is produced here than in any of the other provinces. The chief town is Braganza, with 4,000 inhabitants, from which the royal family takes its origin. In the neighbourhood are some hot mineral springs, which were known to the Romans under the name of *Aquæ Fulviæ*.—Villa-real, a town of 6,000 inhabitants, conducts an animated commerce.

CHAP. IX.—THE PROVINCE OF ALENTEJO.

THIS is the largest province of Portugal, but the least populous. Antillon estimates the population at 380,480; Ebeling according to Soares de Barroas at 339,555 souls; and the last census states it at 289,640. The country is intersected by mountains and hills. The ridges of the N.

[3] The Spanish word *Sierra* is by the Portuguese spelled *Serra*.

are a continuation of the Spanish Sierra de Guadaloupe, and the boundaries towards Algarva are formed by a continuation of the Sierra Morena. None of these mountains rises above 4000 feet. The two principal rivers are the Tejo and the Guadiana; there are a great number of others, yet the country is not well-watered. The climate is very hot and dry. —Evora with 9,050 inhabitants is the chief town. Estremoz is famous for its manufacture of earthen pitchers for keeping wine. Beja was the *Pax Julia,* afterwards *Pax Augusta* of the Roman.—Near Ourique is the remarkable Campo de Ourique where Alfonso I. conquered the Arabs in 1139.—Elvas with 10,000 inhabitants is a strongly fortified town. There is here a remarkable aqueduct called Areos de Amoreiro, which leads the water into an enormous subterranean cistern under the ramparts of the town.

CHAP. X.—THE PROVINCE OF ALGARVA.

THIS is the smallest of all the Portuguese provinces. Antillon gives the population at 127,615; Hassel thinks it cannot exceed 100,000; but the census has made it 113,600. The surface is mountainous; the mountains belong to the Sierra Morena, but the highest summits rise not above 4000 feet. The only large river is the Guadiana. The climate is mild and healthy. and the heat is softened by sea-breezes. Algarva has the title of a kingdom; it has its name from the Arabs in whose language it means a country lying towards the west; it was much more extensive in ancient times. The chief town is Lagos with 4000 inhabitants; Albufeira has 3000 inhabitants; Faro 8,000. Tavora, sometimes written Tavira, and sometimes Tavila, is situated at the mouth of the Sequa, a small river which falls into the sea between the Strait of Gibraltar and Cape St Vincent. Its harbour, which is defended by a fort, is good. The number of inhabitants is 8,610.

CHAP. XI.—PORTUGUESE ISLANDS AND COLONIES.

THE AZORES.] The Azores are situated in the Atlantic Ocean, between 37° and 40° north latitude, and between 25° and 33° west longitude. They have generally been considered as belonging to Africa, though they are almost equidistant from Europe, Africa, and America. They were first peopled by Europeans, and are nine in number, viz. St Maria, St Michael, Terceira, St George, Gracioso, Fayal, Pico, Flores, Corvo. It has been asserted that no poisonous animal is to be found on these islands; and that even when carried thither they expire in a few hours. Their population may amount to 160,000.

St Maria.] St Maria is the most southern of the Azores. It is fertile in wheat, and other kinds of grain. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 5000.

St Michael.] This island is situated in 37° 47′ N. lat. and in 25° 42′ W. long. The produce is wheat and flax, and in these it is very fertile. It is more populous than any other of the Azores, being supposed to contain 25,000 inhabitants. It has two good harbours, Ponta del Gada, which is the capital, and Villa Franca.

Terceira.] Terceira, situated in 38° 45′ N. lat. and 27° 6′ W. long. though not the largest, nor the most populous, is generally considered as the chief of the Azores. Its circumference is about 45 miles; and its

population is said to be about 20,000. It is fertile. The chief town is Angra; and in this place resides the governor of the Azores. It is situated upon the south-east side of the island, and has a harbour which is defended by a fortress. It has a few churches of considerable beauty, with two monasteries, and four nunneries. Angra is the see of a bishop.

St George.] This island is situated in 38° 39 N. lat. and in 28° W. long. Like all the islands by which it is surrounded, it is fertile. The population is supposed to amount to 5000.

Gracioso.] Gracioso, in 39° 2′ N. lat. and in 27° 58′ W. long. is of considerable size. Its produce is wheat, butter, and cheese, with a little wine: the number of inhabitants is said to be 3000.

Fayal.] Fayal, situated in 38° 32′ N. lat. and in 28° 41′ W. long. is a considerable island. The chief town, called Villa de Horta, is situated upon a fine harbour, and is supposed to contain 5000 inhabitants. It has many convents. The soil is fertile, and the climate so temperate that fire is not reckoned necessary even in winter. The island is mountainous. In its centre is a volcano; but more than a century has elapsed since it made an eruption. It is liable to earthquakes, one of which greatly hurt the island in 1764. The trees which chiefly abound are the walnut, chesnut, white poplar, and strawberry-tree. Cattle are plentiful, but fowls are not numerous: almost the only kind known being a species of blackbird or thrush with white spots.

Pico.] Pico is a considerable island, both with regard to size and population. It contains in its centre a high pico or mountain resembling the Peak of Teneriffe, from which the island has derived its name. This mountain is estimated by Adamson, at a mile and a half of perpendicular elevation. Pico is said to contain several volcanoes. It is fertile, and annually exports about 5000 pipes of good wine. It is situated in 38° 29′ N. lat. and in 28° 26′ W. long.

Flores.] Flores, situated in 39° 34′ N. lat. and in 31° W. long. derives its name from its abundance of flowers. Its produce consists of wheat, pulse, poultry, and cattle. Population, 1400.

Corvo.] As Flores received its name from its flowers, so Corvo received its appellation from the number of crows which were found upon it. This island, the smallest of the Azores, is situated in 39° 42′ N. lat. and in 31° 5′ W. long. It is fertile in wheat, and the inhabitants rear numerous hogs. The population is said to amount to about 600.

COLONIES.] The empire of Brazil in South America being now an independent State, can no longer be classed among the Portuguese colonies.

The MADEIRA ISLANDS; viz. Madeira and Porto Santo in the Atlantic Ocean do not belong to Europe.

The CAPE VERDE ISLANDS, 14 in number, the GUINEA ISLANDS, the government of ANGOLA, and MOZAMBIQUE, belong to Africa.

In India, Portugal possesses GOA, TIMOR, and MACAO.

Authorities.] Noticia Geogr. del reyno y caminos de Portugal por D. P. Campomanes. Madrid 1762, 4to.—Murphy's Travels in Portugal. Lond. 1795.—Broughton's Letters from Portugal. Lond. 1815.—Reichard's Itinerary of Portugal.—Kinsey's Portugal illustrated. 8vo. Lond. 1828.—Faden's Map of Portugal. Lond. 1797.—Balbi, Essai Statistique. 2 vols. 8vo. Par. 1822.—Mapa del reyno de Portugal por D. P. Campomanes. Madrid, 2 feuill.

ITALY.

Name.] Italy was, in more ancient times, denominated *Saturnia*, *Œnotria*, *Hesperia*, and *Ausonia*. The name *Saturnia* is supposed to owe its origin to the traditionary tale of Saturn, the father of the Cretan Jupiter, who, after being deposed and driven out of Crete by his unnatural son, took refuge in this region. The names *Œnotria* and *Ausonia* it obtained from the Œnotres and Ausones, its ancient inhabitants; and that of *Hesperia*, or 'the Western land,' was bestowed upon it by the Greeks to denote its situation in respect to Greece. As to the origin of the name *Italia* or Italy—which began to be generally used only in the time of the Romans, but in process of time prevailed over all the rest—we are quite in the dark. Timæus and Varro derive it from the Greek word *Italus*, 'an ox,' a species of animal which abounded in that country, which was called also *Taurina* for the same reason. According to Thucydides and Dionysius Halicarnassensis, the name was derived from King *Italus* who once reigned in this country. The conjecture of Sir Walter Raleigh, who makes *Italia* the same with *Ætolia*, a Grecian district on the other side of the Adriatic, from which this country received a Greek colony, is as ingenious as any.

Boundaries and Extent.] The limits of no region are marked in more distinct and precise characters by the hand of Nature than Italy; and, at the same time, no where have the political boundaries and divisions of any country been more fluctuating and uncertain. In Geography, there are two modes of division to be considered: the one natural, the other artificial. The former is generally permanent and immutable; the latter being factitious is liable to change and seldom outlives the cause that produced it. The former interests us where its lines are bold, sublime, and magnificent; the latter when connected with great events, and the history of celebrated nations. In both these divisions Italy is peculiarly happy; but transcendently so in the latter. The Alps, the highest mountains in the ancient world, arranged in a huge crescent, one extremity of which reaches to the Adriatic Gulf, and the other to the sea of Genoa, separate Italy from the regions of the N., and serve as a barrier against the frozen tempests which blow from the Boreal regions, and a rampart against continental invasion. Hannibal denominated the Alps, the walls, not only of Italy, but even of Rome itself. The Adriatic sea bathes this charming country on the E., the Tuscan sea on the W.; and, on the S., the Ionian sea opens an easy communication with all the southern countries.[1] Numberless islands line its shores, and in the

[1] "Il semble," says a recent French writer, "que les Dieux aient lance l'Italie au milieu du vaste ocean, comme un Phare immense qui appelle les navigateur des pays les plus eloignes."

interior, the Appenines, a range of mountains of the second order, commence where the Alps terminate, and extending through its whole length, and branching into various ramifications, divide the Peninsula into several provinces materially differing in their climates and productions. The length of Italy, from Mount Rosa, the highest summit of the Italian Alps, to the Cape de Leuca, is 670 English miles; while the medial breadth, between the Adriatic and the Mediterranean, is about 100 miles; but from the head of the gulf of Trieste to the Rhone, the western boundary of Savoy, the breadth is 370 English miles. It extends from 38° to 46½° N. lat. and from 6° to 19° E. long. According to Mayer's map the total superficial extent of Italy, including the surface of its islands is 131,600 British square miles.* According to Galante its extent is 127,970 square miles. Cortambert in 1826, estimated the total population of this country at 19,884,000, and Stein at 19,093,500. Balbi, the same year, states it at 16,560,500, exclusive of the Austro-Italian States, or Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, for which there requires to be added 4,237,301, (census of 1825,) making a total of 20,797,801.

Divisions.] Italy was, in very ancient times, like most other countries, parcelled out into innumerable petty States and kingdoms; but became divided while yet in a state of incipient civilization, into three grand districts: the northern, the central, and the southern. The first was seized and colonized by the Gauls, who either extirpated, expelled, or subjugated the original inhabitants. This division was denominated by the Romans, in the earlier periods of their history, *Gallia Cisalpina*, because it lay on the Italian side of the Alps; and afterwards, when reduced into a Roman province, *Gallia Togata*, because the inhabitants, in imitation of their conquerors, wore the Roman *toga*, or gown. It was also called *Italia Subalpina*, or Italy at the foot of the Alps. This extensive tract, which extended from the *Alpes Rhæticæ*, or the mountains of Tyrol on the N. E., to the *Mare Ligusticum*, or Gulf of Genoa, on the S. W., was subdivided into four regions: viz. the *Subalpine countries*, or Piedmont; *Liguria*, or the Genoese territory; *Gallia Cispadana;* and *Gallia Transpadana*. These two last divisions, comprehending the fertile valley of the Po, now known by the name of Lombardy, were bounded on the S. by the Appenines, on the E. by the Adriatic, on the W. by the Subalpine countries, and on the north by the Alps which divide Italy from Switzerland and Tyrol. All these four divisions comprised a tract of country 280 British miles in length by 150 in breadth.

The central division, now known by the name of Tuscany and the patrimony of St Peter, comprehended the ancient *Etruria, Umbria, Latium, Sabinium, Picenum,* and the north-western parts of the modern kingdom of Naples. The Etrurians were of Asiatic extraction; the Umbrians were a Celtic colony; the Latins derived their origin from the Pelasgic and Æolic Greeks,[2] but, as the ancestors of the Roman name and power proceeded from the most barbarous parts of Greece at a very early period, many ages elapsed before their manners, brutalized by a continual series of incessant conflicts, reflected a tint of Grecian civilization.

The southern division was called *Magna Græcia*, because most of the cities on its coast were Greek colonies, and spoke the Greek language. The inhabitants gave it the appellation of Great Greece, not that it was

* Niebuhr thinks that the Latin people arose from an intermixture of the Casci, an original people of Italy allied to the Oscans and other ancient tribes, with the Siculi, a Pelasgian race.

greater than Greece properly so called, but from mere vanity, as we are informed by Pliny. This tract comprehended almost the whole of the modern Neapolitan territories, and comprised the ancient *Apulia, Lucania,* and *Bruttium.*

Italy was afterwards divided by Augustus Cæsar into 11 provinces. Upon the downfall of the Roman name and power, it was seized by the Ostrogoths, who were expelled by the celebrated Belisarius, general of the emperor Justinian. In the middle ages, the kingdom of Lombardy and the kingdom of Naples held the two extremities; while the Papal and Tuscan territories occupied the centre of Italy.

Italy, taken in its utmost extent, may still be considered under the three grand divisions: Northern Italy, Central Italy, and southern Italy. The first, or Northern division contains the dominions of the king of Sardinia, and the Austro-Italian states. The second or Central Italy, the dominions of the grand duke of Tuscany, the Pope's territories, the duchies of Parma and Placentia, of Modena, Mirandola, and Massa, and the principality of Carrara, the small republic of Lucca, the principality of Piombino, the island of Elba, and the small republic of St Marino. The third grand division embraces the south of Italy, with the island of Sicily, and is subject to the king of Naples.

CHAP. I.—GENERAL HISTORY OF ITALY.

Ancient History.] The most ancient history of Italy, like that of all Aborigines, is veiled in mythological darkness. In upper Italy, or *Gallia Cisalpina* and *Liguria* as far as to the Rubicon, we find, in its earliest history, tribes of Gauls, Ligurians, and Iberians; middle Italy was occupied by the Etrurians and Latin tribes, and the latter early extended into Lower Italy, or *Græcia Magna,* where they were joined, especially in the neighbourhood of the coast, by colonies of Greeks. The earliest traces of civilization existed among the Etrurians, and seems indeed for a series of ages to have been quite peculiar to this people; though the Etrurians themselves were but a motley tribe of Iberians, ancient Gauls and Pelasgæ, their institutions were afterwards with different political modifications introduced into Rome. Traditions of constant wars between the small tribes and States of Italy have been handed down from the mythological age: to these belong the wars in Latium, the pretended arrival of Æneas with his Trojans, the kind reception granted to him by Latinus, king of Latium, whose daughter Lavinia he married, and whom he succeeded after having aided him in the conquest of all Latium. Even the foundation of Rome, a colony of Alba Longa, about the year 753, B. C. which is attributed to the twin-brothers Romulus and Remus, descendants of Ascanius, the son of Æneas, and the whole epoch of the Roman kings, embracing a period of 245 years, are veiled in the clouds of mythology, and present many conflicting traditions and hopeless blanks which historians have vainly attempted to reconcile and fill up. Rome, from its very beginning, having been founded by colonists from Alba Longa, belonged to the league of Latin towns; and it was not till after long struggles, and the destruction of Alba Longa, that it became the head of this league. The constitution of Rome was founded upon the distinction between Patricians and Plebeians, upon a very ancient form of religious worship by which the domination of the Priests was completely checked, upon the warlike

spirit of the citizens, and in private life upon the severity of the paternal powers. Kings were held in consideration only in as far as they were able to maintain war against their neighbours; and all attacks upon the royal dignity, and even its final abolition, originated not with the Plebeians, but with the Patricians and a powerful senate. It was a constitution like this which exalted Rome to her high and palmy state, and finally won for a colony which originally possessed little more than a dozen square miles of territory, the dominion of the world.

Middle History.] As we intend to give here only a general outline of the history of Italy, we shall leave that of Rome till we come to treat of that part of the country. Odoacer, the captain of the German guards of the last emperor of Rome, Romulus Augustulus, assumed the title of king of Italy in 476, and introduced the first principles of the feudal system into Italy. Theodoric, invited probably by the Byzantine emperor Zeno, invaded Italy at the head of an army of Eastrogoths in 489, and conquered Odoacer at Ravenna in 493. The Eastrogoths spread themselves over the whole of Italy, and the seat of the new empire, which extended from the Danube to the Straits of Sicily, was at Verona. But this kingdom too disappeared after Theodoric's death in 526, when the Greek emperors renewed their ancient claims to Italy. In the Lagunes of the Adriatic, however, a small confederated State, consisting of a number of small tribes who had fled before the devastating march of Attila, still preserved its independence. Two generals of the emperor Justinian, Belisarius and Narses, entered Italy in 535; and the latter, after a struggle of 27 years between the Greeks and Eastrogoths, in 554 made Italy a province of the Greek empire, under the name of *the Exarchate.* Narses governed Italy for his imperial master till 567, when he was recalled on account of the discovery of some intrigue at the court. His military reputation had prevented the Langobards, who then possessed Pannonia, from invading Italy; but after his recall they appeared in Upper Italy in 568, where their king, Alboin, after a rapid conquest of the country, fixed the seat of his empire at Pavia. With the foundation of the kingdom which took its name from the Langobards, the laws and constitution of this people spread over all the Italian provinces which they conquered, and the feudal system was thus established in Italy. But the small confederacy in the Lagunes of the Adriatic still continued to maintain its independence, and in 697 constituted themselves the republic of Venice, by electing the Doge, Paul Lucas Anafestus; whilst Ravenna, the Pentapolis, or the 5 maritime towns of Rimini, Pesaro, Fano, Sinigaglia, and Ancona, and almost the whole coast of Lower Italy, Sicily, and Rome, remained nominally under the Greek dominion. Under Astolf, the Lombardian kingdom gained new strength, and an attempt was made to drive the Greeks entirely out of Italy by conquering the northern part of the Exarchate, which he united with Lombardy. This led to a dispute with the Roman bishops, who had already, availing themselves of the weakness of the Greek governors, taken possession of several parts of the Exarchate. The new king of the Franks, Pepin, supported the Roman see, which occasioned a new war under Astolf's successor, Desiderius, in 774, and ultimately led to the entire overthrow of the Lombardian dominions by Charlemagne.

Naples and Sicily.] Charlemagne, having united the Lombardian crown with that of the Frankish empire, bestowed part of the Exarchate, and the Pentapolis, on Pope Leo III. in 800. Some remains of the Ex-

archate had been left in Lower Italy, and now became a scene of civil war: the Greeks who lived there having called the Arabs from Sicily to assist them against the Germans. When this storm was appeased, the Normans, who had entered the service of the Lombardian dukes of Benevento and Capua, vanquished the Greeks, and succeeded in making themselves masters of Lower Italy and Sicily; but their kings acknowledged the Pope as their liege lord. After the extinction of the Norman kings, the House of Hohenstaufen succeeded to Naples by right of inheritance, and exercised the supreme power here from 1193 to 1268. It was against the last members of this House that the Pope called the French prince Charles of Anjou to his aid in 1265. Charles made himself master of Naples after having, in 1268, conquered and beheaded Conradin, the last stem of the House of Hohenstaufen; but he lost Sicily on the Sicilian vespers of the 30th of March 1282. It fell into the hands of Peter, king of Arragon, the son-in-law of Manfred of the House of Hohenstaufen, who was himself a natural son of Frederick II.; but Naples was in the course of time again united with Sicily.

Savoy.] In Upper Italy, the Lombardian cities, at the head of which stood Milan, became very powerful, particularly during the agitated epoch of the last Carlovingians. After a long and obstinate struggle, in which these towns, excited and sustained by the spirit of liberty, industry, and commerce, successfully maintained their freedom against the emperor Frederick I., they obtained an almost complete independence in the peace of Constance, concluded in 1183. Their wealth increased rapidly during the Crusades, in which epoch also their republican constitution was gradually developed, and their civilization advanced. Certain families, however, gradually obtained a decided influence upon the government in different cities, and at last succeeded in getting the helm of affairs entirely into their own hands. It was thus that the possessions of the counts of Savoy were formed in Upper Italy from the remnants of the ancient Burgundian dominions; they got possession of Turin, Asti, and Nice, and gradually enlarged their territories by marriage and inheritance. Under the emperor Sigismond, in 1416, Amadeus was created first duke of Savoy.

Milan.] In Milan the influence of the family of Visconti was so great, that the emperor Henry VII., in 1310, named Mattheus Visconti imperial governor of Milan; and John Galeazzo Visconti obtained in 1395 the title of duke from king Wencislaus. To this duchy then belonged Brescia, Bergamo, Padua, Vicenza, and several other towns.

Mantua.] In Mantua, Francis Gonzaga, in 1432, obtained the dignity of a Margrave from the emperor Sigismond.

Florence.] The House of Medici had flourished in Florence since 1400, but it was only in 1530 that Charles V. conferred upon that family the dignity of dukes, which the House of Este in Modena had obtained from the emperor Frederick III. so early as 1452, in the person of the Margrave Borro.

Venice.] More powerful than any of the other Italian States, rose the Republic of Venice. At the head of this independent commercial aristocracy stood an elected Doge.

Genoa.] Genoa struggled with Pisa and Venice for the preponderance in the Mediterranean. In 1329 the dignity of the Doge was created in Genoa.

States of the Church.] The Popes had at an earlier epoch than that of the origin of many of the Italian principalities, laid the foundation of

their worldly power in the donation of the Frankish kings. It was a bold and masterly piece of policy in the Popes to bestow the Sicilian crown in fief upon the Normans in order to attach them to the interests of the see of Rome, and to establish the system of a clerical hierarchy.

Parma and Piacenza.] The towns and dominions of Parma and Piacenza were, in 1545, raised to the rank of a duchy by Pope Paul III., of the Farnese family, and given to his natural son, Peter Celoys Farnese, in whose family they remained till its extinction.

Malta.] The island of Malta, after having passed consecutively into the hands of the Eastrogoths, Greeks, Arabs, and Normans, and after having been united with Sicily, was in 1530 given by Charles V. to the knights of St John.

This brief sketch of the general history of Italy will serve as an introduction to the respective historical chapters which we intend to devote to each of the Italian States.

CHAP. II.—PHYSICAL FEATURES—CLIMATE—SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS—MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.

Of all European countries Italy is represented as affording the greatest beauties of landscape, and exhibiting in the greatest perfection that variety of surface in which the chief charm of prospect consists, while the soil is covered with a luxuriant growth of the most beautiful plants, and the uncommon serenity of the atmosphere heightens the impression excited by the whole. To a classical scholar the scenery of this country is rendered more exquisitely interesting in the survey of those streams and mountains long familiar to him from the perusal of his favourite writers, and the contemplation of those cities and ruins which have been associated in his mind with the most illustrious events of history.

Italy forms a large peninsula, beginning at the foot of a secondary chain of mountains which runs out from the Alps towards the S., flattens gradually into plains, and at last sinks into the sea. Except the Po, the rivers are not very important; but there are numerous bays, peninsulas, and islands, and so many parts are washed by the sea, that in extent of coasts Italy is not surpassed by any country of continental Europe. In the N. and W., mountains rising into the clouds separate it from the rest of Europe; a few passes lead over this chain, from which a single ridge runs out over the whole peninsula, under the name of the Appenines, and even passes over into the island of Sicily. On both sides of the Appenines extend the Italian plains. The coasts are flat, and unprotected in the N.E., where the Po and several rapid coast-rivers, flowing from the neighbouring Alps, rush with great impetuosity into the sea; but every where else they are guarded by high rocks and steep cliffs. The general declination is determined by the Appenines. Upper Italy, where the Appenines approach the S.W. coast, has its declination towards the Adriatic; and the rest of Italy declines on one side of this chain towards the Tyrrnenian sea, and on the other towards the Adriatic and the Ionian seas. The northern or continental part of Italy is a large valley extending between the Alps and Appenines. Along the Po the soil is very rich and productive. The Alps in Upper Italy present a slaty surface, which rests on a calcareous basis.' On some of the mountains volcanic productions are found, and the stratas are broken and interrupted. The districts of Padua, Vicenza, and

Verona, are volcanic, but very well-watered, and extremely fertile. The south of Italy has not much water; even Tuscany, though mountainous, does not abound in it, and the rivers which come down from the Appenines are rather brooks which often entirely disappear during the summer. Rain is sometimes entirely wanting; and the luxuriant vegetation of this part of Italy is mostly owing to its volcanic soil. The coast of the Adriatic, from the mouth of the Po to Cape Leuca, on the N. side of the Appenines is almost entirely calcareous; but the southern side, or the coast of the Tyrrhenian sea from Pisa to Salerno, is volcanic. The lower districts of this coast consist of volcanic ashes, and the volcanic appearances increase as we proceed southwards, so that there is reason to apprehend that this region is destined to become one day the scene of a fearful explosion of subterranean fire. Barren steppes and pestiferous tracts of land are found at Manfredonia and Barletta, the Maremna of Sienna, and the Pontine marshes; in Upper Italy too, some very unwholesome districts exist in the Lagunes and marshes of the Po.

Rivers.—The Po.] Italy is intersected with rivers which flow in every direction to the sea. Of these the Po is by far the most important for magnitude and length of course, and is justly denominated the prince of the Italian streams. On account of its depth it received from the Ligurians, who dwelt in its neighbourhood, the appellation of *Bodincus*, or 'the bottomless.' The classic pen of Ovid has immortalized it under the name of *Eridanus*, as consecrated by the fall of Phaeton, shaded by his sister-poplars, and enriched by their amber-tears. This magnificent stream rises within the French lines in the recesses of Mount Vesulus or Viso, at an elevation of 6,466 feet, 30 miles to the W. of Turin, on the very confines of France and Italy, and nearly in the parallel of Mount Dauphine in Dauphiné, and Saluzzo in Piedmont. Descending from the Western Alps, it passes on the N.E. of Saluzzo, by Carignan, to Turin: receiving, even in this short space, many Alpine streams, as the Varila, Maira, and Grana, from the south, and the Felice, Sagon, and others from the north. Most of these streams, having had a longer course than that which is called the Po, might perhaps be more justly regarded as the principal river; nay, the Tanaro, which rises in the Appenines, and flows into the Po some miles below Alessandria, might claim, in the river Stura, a more remote source than the Po itself. After leaving the walls of Turin, the Po receives innumerable rivers and rivulets from the Alps on the north, and the Appenines on the south. Among the former may be named the Doria, the Sesia, the Tessino, the Adda, the Oglio, and the Mincio, to the E. of which, the Adige, an independent stream, descends from the Alps of Tyrol, and pursues a course of 200 miles to the Adriatic. From the south, the Po receives the large river Tanaro, itself swelled by the Belba, the Bormida, the Stura, and other streams. The other southern streams are of less consequence; but, among them may be named the Trebbia, a rapid stream, famous for the defeat of the consul Sempronius by Hannibal, and, in modern times, by the hard-earned victory of Suwarrow over marshal Macdonald, the river of Parma, and the Panaro which enters the Po at Stellato to the W. of Ferrara. The comparative course of the Po is about 300 British miles. Its average breadth from Turin, where it becomes navigable, to Arona where it falls into the Adriatic, is 1200 feet. To the N. of Ferrara it is as broad as the Rhine at Dusseldorf; and, before it receives the Mincio, it rivals the Danube at Vienna. Its depth is every where great; and its

current strong and rapid. The sand and gravel washed from the Alps and Appenines by its numerous tributary streams have elevated the bed of the Po in modern times, so that in many places banks of 30 feet high are necessary to preserve the country from inundation. The canal of Naviglo unites the navigation of the Tessino and Po.

The Tiber.] The next for size, but superior in point of classical celebrity, is the river Tiber, which, rising in the Appenines, near the source of the Arno, and passing by Perugia and Rome, enters the Mediterranean after a comparative course of 150 British miles. It is said to receive 42 rivers or torrents, many of them celebrated in Roman story, and has a stream always full. However, the Tiber is only 300 feet wide at Rome.

The length of the course of the Adige is almost that of the Po. It becomes navigable on entering Italy, and falls into the Adriatic at Brendala. We have already mentioned this river in our description of Tyrol. The coasting rivers of Venice are the Brenta, the Piave, the Tagliamento, and the Isonzo. The Var, which forms the boundaries between France and Piedmont, falls into the Mediterranean at Tour de Serre. The Paglion, a coasting river of Piedmont, falls into the sea at Nice. The Magra is a coasting river of which the mouth is at Monte Marcello. The Serchio, a coasting river, falls into the sea at S. Giuliano. The Arno descends from the Appenines and flows into the sea at Pisa. The Fiora, the Marta, the Mignone, the Arone, the Astura, the Garigliano, one of the largest rivers of Naples, the Volturno, the Silaro, the Ofanto, the Fortore, the Biferno, and the Pescara, are all Neapolitan rivers. The Asone, the Chiento, the Esimo, the Metauro, the Marecchio, the Ronca, and the Montone, belong to the States of the Church. In Sicily there are the Giarreta and the Salso; in Sardinia, the Oristano and Flumendosa; in Corsica, the Liamone and Tavignano. Many of the rivers of Upper Italy are navigable either naturally or by art, and several are united with one another, or with the lakes by canals; but in Central and Lower Italy there are no navigable rivers except the Arno and Tiber. Some of the Italian rivers at their mouth form pernicious *maremnas*. The Orco, which descends from Mount Cervin, forms at Ceresole a vertical cascade of 2400 feet; and the torrent of Evanson in its descent from Mont Rosa has a fall of 1200 feet. The cataract of Terni, formed by the Nar, is perhaps the most beautiful in the world. The river Velino, a little before its junction with the Nar, suddenly rushes down a precipice 300 feet high, and dashes so violently on the subjacent rocks that a great part of the stream rises in vapour. It afterwards falls down two other precipices nearly of the same height, the waters each time rising into a kind of mist. The aggregate height of these falls is 800 feet. The river Tiverone, the ancient *Anio*, has a fall of 50 feet, near Tivoli.

Lakes.] Italy abounds in beautiful lakes, particularly in the northern division. The Lago Maggiore, or lake of Locarno, is 27 miles long, by 3 of medial breadth: stretching from Locarno in the Swiss canton of Tessino, to Testo, in the government of Milan. It is connected by the canal of Tinicello with the town of Milan. Its shores abound with Alpine beauties, and its depth is immense being no less than 1800 feet. This lake is connected by the Tresa with the lake Lugano on the E., celebrated for its beautiful Boromæan isles. Farther to the E. is the lake of Como; which is joined by that of Lecco. It is about 32 miles in length; but the medial breadth is not above 2½ miles. Still farther to the E. is the lake of Iso, which is followed by the noble Lago di Garda celebrated by

Virgil in his pastorals under the name of *Benacus*. It has an expanse of 30 British miles in length, by eight in breadth. The scenery of these lakes—which all belong to the Lombardo-Venetian States—is highly interesting, and has called forth all the powers of song and charms of poetry to describe their beauties. One word of Virgil has given dignity to the Larian lake; one verse of his has communicated the grandeur of the Ocean to the Benacus;[3] and a few lines have raised the streamlet of the Mincius above the full and majestic Danube. One grand feature which distinguishes the scenery of the northern Italian lakes from that of the lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland, or of the Caledonian lochs, is the effect produced on the mind and feelings of the British traveller, from the sublime appearance of the Alpine ridge which rises above their extremities, or envelopes them in its bosom, and presents every mountain-form and colour, from the curve to the pinnacle, and from the deep tints of the forest to the dazzling whiteness of snow, so that to the traveller recently returned from Italy, Windermere appears a pool, and Skiddaw shrinks into a hillock. Lochlomond is the only lake in this country which can vie with those Alpine waters, skirted as it is by the lofty Benlomond, and embracing in its broad expanse a number of charming little islands. Yet the heathy sides, the naked brow, the heavy lumpish form of Benlomond and the lifeless masses around it, are not to be compared with the bold, the varied, and the animated scenery, which presents to the astonished view the incipient beauties of spring, the glories of summer, or the finished splendours of autumn, contrasted with the glaciers that crown the summits, or hang on the sides of the Italian Alps. In Savoy there are the lakes of Bourget and Annecy, and a part of the lake of Geneva belongs to that country. In Piedmont is the small lake of Viverone; in Tuscany the Lago di M. Ignoso, di Fucecchio, di Seria, and di Castiglione; in Lucca the Lago di Massaciuccoli; in the States of the Church the Lago di Bolsena, di Bracciano, and di Perugia; in the kingdom of Naples the Lago di Celano and Di Fondi; the lakes of Varano, Lesina, and Salpi, are connected with the sea; and those of Agnano and Averno are quite insignificant; in the Isle of Sicily there are not any considerable lakes, neither are there any in Sardinia and Corsica.

Mountains—the Alps.] The most important mountains of Italy are the Alps; which, rising from the sea to the W. of Oneglia, run for a short space in a western direction, and then assume a northern course as far as the frontiers of Savoy and Dauphiné, where a lateral ridge, projecting from the main range, and extending in a western direction, separates Dauphiné on the S. from Savoy on the N., and which is also separated from Italy on the E. by the main range. The Alps then take a north-western course, terminated in this direction by Mont Blanc 'or the white mountain.' From thence they run north-east, separating the Valais in Switzerland from the duchy of Aost and part of the Milanese, as far as St Gothard and the sources of the Tessino. From thence, in a waving direction, they run almost due E., separating the Milanese, the Trentine, and ci-devant Venetian territories on the S., from the Valteline, the Tyrol, and Carinthia on the N. They then assume a south-eastern direction, as far as the head of the Gulf of Cattaro; and are there known by the appellation of *Montenegro*, or 'the black mountain.' Running in this direction parallel with the coast of the Adriatic, they separate Istria, Morlachia,

[3] Geor. II. 160.

and Dalmatia on the S.W. from Carniola, Austrian and Turkish Croatia, Herzegovina, and Bosnia on the N.E.

As to the term *Alps*, we are altogether uncertain whether it is of Gallic or Roman origin. These mountains received anciently—as they still do in modern times—various appellations. The *Maritime Alps* stretch between Nice and Provence, from the Mediterranean to Mont Viso the source of the Po. The *Cottian Alps* extend from Mont Viso to Mont Cenis, or between Piedmont and Dauphiné. The *Grecian Alps* extend from Mont Cenis as far as the Col de bon Homme. The *Pennine Alps* extend from the Col de bon Homme and the Great Bernard as far as Mont Rosa, and separate Piedmont from Savoy and the Valais. The *Lepontine* or *Helvetic Alps* reach from Mont Rosa to the Bernandine and Moschelhorn in the Grisons, skirting the Valais on the north, and inclosing the group of the St Gothard and the Luckmanierberg, dividing Switzerland from Piedmont and Lombardy. The *Rhætian Alps* extend from the Bernardine to the Dreyhernspitze on the western frontier of Carinthia, and give rise to the Tessino, Adda, Adige, Inn, and Salza rivers. This part of the Alpine range comprehends the Valteline, the Grisons, and the Tyrol. The *Noric Alps* reach from the Dreyhernspitze across Carinthia and Styria, to the plains of Oedenburg in Hungary, dividing in their progress eastward, Carinthia and Styria from Salzburg and Austria. They were so named from *Noricum*, a Roman colony. The *Carnic Alps* commence at Mount Pelegrino, and reach as far E. as the Terglau, which gives rise to the Save, and comprehends the mountains running S. of the Drave to that point. A lateral range from this separates Friuli from the peninsula of Istria. The *Julian Alps* are an elongation of the Carnic Alps, ramifying from the Terglau, comprehending the mountains that extend from the source of the Save to that of the Kulpa, and from thence to Mount Kleck near Zeng in Hungarian Dalmatia. They separate Carniola from Croatia, Carinthia from Friuli, and Hungarian Dalmatia from Austrian and Turkish Croatia. The *Dinaric Alps* reach from Mount Kleck, near Zeng to the frontiers of Upper Albania in a S.E. direction, separating Turkish Croatia and Bosnia from Dalmatia. From this point they become confounded with the Balkan or Haimus, which runs through European Turkey as far E. as the Black Sea, and separates the southern side of the basin of the Danube from the rest of that region. In general, the Alps rise in successive elevations from the sea to Mont Blanc. Monts Genevre, Viso, Cenis, Roch Melon, Iseran, and the Col de Tende, are the most noted summits of the Western Alps. Mont Blanc, Mont Maudit, Mont Rosa, Mont Cervin, Combin, and the Great St Bernard, are the highest of the northern chain; and the lofty Mont Simplon rears its head in awful majesty over the valley of the Tosa, while to the eye of the traveller, the long vista of the Levantine is closed on the N. by the magnificent St Gothard.[4]

[4] *The following is a List of the Principal Elevations.*

	Toises.	English feet.
Mont Blanc, in the Pennine Alps, by Tralles in 1796, .	2,468	15,814
—— Rosa, do. by Welden, 1822, .	2,373	15,205
Ortelen Horn, between Bormio and the Tyrol. by Keller, .		15,024
Cervin or the Matterhorn, in the Pennine Alps, by Saussure,	2,309	14,796
Mount Loneira, from Malte Brun, ...		14,465
—— Combin, in the Pennine Alps, by Keller, . .	2,208	14,152
—— Pelvox, head of the Vallieusa, from Zach, . .	2,206	14,134
Loupilon, Hauts Alps, by Welden, ...		14,128
Dome de Goutte, near Mont Blanc, by Saussure, . .	2,200	11,096
Joselmo, Hauts Alps, by Farmond		14,056

The Alps, indeed, are not to be compared, in point of altitude, with the colossal summits of the Andes. But it must be kept in mind, that the Andes stand on a plain whose base is from 8000 to 9000 feet above the level of the sea. This is the case at least in the province of Quito;

	Toises.	English feet.
Needle, N. E. of the Col de Geant, near Mont Blanc, Journal de Physique,	2,171	13,930
Mount Viso, at the source of the Po, Cottian Alps, by Welden,	2,165	13,872
Peak, N. E. of the Col de Laniere, Hauts Alps, from Zach,	2,165	13,872
Mount Olan, do. do.	2,163	13,860
Col de Mount Viso de Ristolas, do. do.	2,162	13,854
Col de Niere,* do. do.	2,160	13,842
Mountain between the valleys of Matter and Sass, by Welden,	2,247	13,758
Mount Ozon, Hauts Alps, from Zach,	2,104	13,482
Col de Argentiere, head of the Stura, in the Maritime Alps, by Welden,	2,100	13,456
Mount Iseran, head of the Iser, do.	2,076	13,302
Great Peloux, W. of Briancon, Hauts Alps, from Zach,	2,102	13,170
Mount de Maurin, do. do.	2,051	13,162
Peak between Maurin and Laclapiere, do. do.	2,050	13,126
Mountain, N.W. of Briancon, do. do.	2,023	12,963
Aiguille de Midi, near Mount Blanc, Journal de Physique,	2,009	12,874
Les Trois Ellions, Hauts Alps, from Zach,	1,992	12,766
Mount Laurang, do. do.	1,980	12,688
Aiguille de Goutte, Pennine Alps, Journal de Physique,	1,980	12,688
Aiguille de Dru, do. do.	1,956	12,534
Mount Galion de la Grave, Hauts Alps, from Zach,	1,950	12,496
Kebru Konigs Spitze, near Ortelen Horn, by Welden,	1,920	12,300
Aiguille de Argentiere, near Mount Blanc, by Ramond,	1,902	12,188
Dent de Parasse, in Savoy, by Welden,	1,898	12,162
Monte Della Desgrazie, do. do.	1,886	12,085
Monte Frerere, do. do.	1,856	11,897
Roc St Michael, highest point of Mount Cenis, do.	1,843	11,810
Mont Genevre, Cottian Alps, from Malte Brun,		11,788
Monte Gario, near Bormio, do.		11,756
Roche Melon, or Roca Melona, S. E. of Mount Cenis, by Welden,	1,813	11,620
Mont la Rame, in Savoy, do.	1,811	11,607
Aiguille de Arve, Savoy, do.	1,796	11,508
Col de Geant, Savoy, by Saussure,	1,763	11,298
Col de Saix, Hauts Alps, from Zach,	1,723	11,042
Mount Velan, highest point of the Great St Bernard, M. Mewith,		11,027
—— Valaisan, S. E. side of the Little St Bernard, Malte Brun,		10,929
Chaillet de Vieux, Hauts Alps, from Zach,	1,704	10,929
Mount Buet, Savoy, by Saussure,		10,112
Summit of the Little St Bernard, Graian Alps, do.		9,591
Col de Cramont, Savoy, do.		8,990
Mount Breven, do. do.		8,370
Croix de Bon Homme, Graian Alps, do.		8,083
Col de la Segni, do. do.		8,044
Val du Ferrier, Pennine Alps, do.		7,648
Col de Balme, do. do.		7,558
Montanvert, do. do.		6,106
Priory of Chamouny, in Savoy, do.		3,354

Principal Summits of the Appenines.

	English Feet.
Monte Corno, or Gran-Sasso, in Naples, the highest summit, from prof. Schow,	9,542
—— Amaso, highest point of the mountains of Majella, do.	9,365
—— Velino, or Avellino, in Naples, Western Point, do.	8,207
Velora, nigh Castelluccio, highest point, do.	8,152
Monte Velino, or Avellino, in Naples, Eastern Point, do.	7,986
Mountains called La Sibilla, highest point, do.	7,228
Terminillo Grande, near Civita Ducate, do.	7,040
Monte Cimone, or the *Mons Ciminus*, from the Almanach de Genes,	6,978
Terminillo Piccolo, from prof. Schow,	6,320
Monte Amiata, do.	5,792
—— Catria, do.	5,550
San Pelegrino do.	5,168
Monte Peninno, do.	5,167
—— Calvo, do.	5,116
—— Genaro, near Palombaro, do.	4,232

and, therefore, the Alps when viewed from the low plains of Italy or Switzerland, may appear as high to the view as the Andes when seen from the elevated plain of Quito. The Andes appear in their greatest majesty when viewed from the sea. The Himalaya mountains are a

The most noted passes of the Alps are the following: 1*st* The pass of the Bochetta, leading from the city of Genoa to the plains of Piedmont. It is very narrow and confined. The crest of this pass is 6,660 English feet above the city of Genoa. On the S. side of Piedmont the defile is commanded by the fortress of Gavi. In the spring of 1800 the Bochetta was stormed by general Melas, and 15,000 French under Masseua, though aided by a numerous artillery, and the natural advantages of a narrow pass presenting a barrier almost insuperable, were compelled, after an obstinate struggle and the loss of their intrenchments, to shelter themselves behind the ramparts of Genoa. The 2*d* pass is that of Mount Genevre in the Cottian Alps, 20 British miles of horizontal distance to the S. W. of Susa. This pass is only 6,491 English feet above the sea, and is easily scaled, the summit being a long and wide plain, tolerably well cultivated in several parts. The large village of Bourg Mount Genevre lies nearly in the centre, the heights on either side not rising to 1000 feet above its level, and are covered to the top with large pines in great abundance. A beautiful road over this pass was constructed by French engineers by order of Buonaparte. It ascends the right bank of the Durance, whilst the old road went up the left bank. The foot of this pass is little more than 2 miles N. E. of Briancon. The 3*d* pass is that of Mount Cenis in the same Alps. It is much more steep and difficult on the Italian side than on that of Dauphiné. The road on the French side ascends from Lans de Bourg, for 4 miles in a winding direction, till it reaches the pass, which is a plain 6 miles long by 4 miles wide, encircled on all sides by the different eminences and ridges that form the summit of this part of the chain. The crest of this pass is 6,865 feet above the sea, and the surrounding heights are from 2,500 to 4,500 feet above the plain. In the middle of this plain is a circular lake of immense depth, and 1½ miles in diameter. It is 6,280 feet above the sea. To the S. of this plain a tremendous cliff projects towards the side of Italy, presenting a broken and almost perpendicular precipice. From hence is a prospect as far as Turin. The 4*th* pass is that of the Little St Bernard in the Graian Alps, leading from Bourg St Maurice, across the range to La Tuille, on the Italian side. This is the identical pass by which Hannibal entered Italy, and is the easiest of all those by which Italy can be entered on the side of Gaul or modern France. The summit is a plain of 2½ miles in length, well sheltered, and having in its centre a small lake, the source of the Doria. The plain is 7,210 English feet above the sea. To the N. E. of the Hospice is a large circle of stones exactly resembling a Druidical circle, and universally denominated the circle of Hannibal, who is believed by tradition to have held a council of war within this inclosure, with his officers. This pass is practicable for mules, and in 1815, a column of 6,000 Austrians, with 10 pieces of cannon, passed it, and the road is in a good state of repair. The 5*th* pass is that of the Great St Bernard, leading from Martigny, in the Valais, on the Swiss side, to Aost on the Italian side. At the foot of the pass on the side of Italy, the road divides into two, the one shorter but more steep and difficult, called the Valpeline; the other broader but longer, leads down the valley of Aost, and the valley of Bardo, from a castle so called, which commands the defile and the valley, being seated on an eminence. The ascent and descent from St Remi at the foot of St Bernard, on the Italian side, to Martigny on the Swiss side, is 18 miles. By this pass in 1800, Buonaparte entered Italy, and once more sealed its fate by the decisive battle of Marengo. The Hospice or Convent is 8,180 feet above the sea, according to a series of observations by the barometer, made on the spot for several years, and compared with similar observations made contemporaneously at Geneva. The 6*th* pass is that of Sempronius, or the Simplon, leading from the head of the Valais across the range to the valley of the Tosa, and the town of Duomo de Ossola, in the Milanese. A military road over this was constructed in 1802 by Buonaparte. The 7*th* is the pass of St Gothard, leading up the valley of the Reuss, till it crosses the range, and then descends by Airolo to the Levantine valley, alongst the course of the Tessin. It was by this route that the Germans first invaded Italy in the reign of Claudius Cæsar, and it was by this pass on the side of Italy, that Suwarrow in 1799 entered Switzerland. The crest of this pass is 6,952 feet above the sea. The 8*th* pass is that of the Splugen, leading from Coire in the Grisons, to the lake of Como. The 9*th* is the Brenner pass, leading over the range from the valley of the Inn, to that of the Adige, passing by Botzen, Brixen, Roveredo, Trent, and Verona, when you enter the cidevant Venetian territory, now included in Austrian Italy. The crest of the Brenner pass, a few miles S. of Inspruck, is 6,463 feet above the sea. The 10*th* pass is that of the Col di Tenda, across the maritime Alps into the Piedmontese territory. This pass, called also the Col de Cornio, is 6,560 feet above the sea. "Let no one," says a late ingenious traveller, "imagine that the crossing the Alps is the work of a moment, or done by a single heroic effort, that they are a huge but detached chain of hills, or like the dotted line we find in the map. They are a sea or an entire kingdom of mountains. It took us three days to traverse them in this, which is the most practicable direction, and travelling at a good

still more sublime object, than either the Alps or Andes, being seen at 244 miles, rearing their lofty summits to the amazing height of more than 28,000 English feet.

The Appenines.] The Appenines, 'the infant Alps,' as they have been called by a great poet, are more remarkable for length of course than greatness of altitude. These mountains begin to assume that appellation in the neighbourhood of Genoa. While the Alpine summits are chiefly granitic, the Appenines—to speak in the dialect of Werner—are, with a few exceptions, a limestone formation, and therefore abound in the greatest variety of beautiful marbles. Monte Velino, near the middle of Italy, is the chief elevation, being 7872 feet above the level of the sea. Monte Cimone, the ancient *Mons Ciminius*, is 6000 feet high.

Glaciers.] Those very extensive fields of ice which lie amidst the Alps are divided into two classes: the first occupying the deep valleys situated in the very bosom of the Alps, are termed by Mr Coxe the Lower Glaciers,—the second, which clothe the summits and sides of the mountains, are called the Upper Glaciers. The Lower Glaciers are by far the most deep and extensive, sometimes stretching several leagues in length; one in particular is more than 15 miles long and 3 broad. They are bordered at the higher extremity by inaccessible rocks, and on the other extend into the cultivated plains. Their thickness varies in different places. The general depth in one glacier was found, by M. Saussure, to be from 80 to 100 feet; but he doubts not that in some places it is more than 600 feet deep. These immense fields of ice usually rest on an inclined plain, and being pushed forward by the pressure of their own weight, and but weakly supported by the rugged rocks beneath, are intersected by large transverse chasms, and present the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantastic shapes, at all heights, and in all situations, wherever the declivity exceeds 30 or 40 degrees. The chasms are few and narrow, and are crossed on foot without much difficulty. The surface of the ice is not so slippery as that of frozen rivers, but rough and granulated, and dangerous to passengers in steep descents only. It is extremely porous, and full of small bubbles, and therefore not so compact as common ice. The Upper Glaciers may be subdivided into those which cover the summits, and those which extend along the sides of the Alps. The former owe their origin to the snow which falls at all seasons of the year, and which remains nearly in its original state: being congealed into a hard substance and not converted into ice. The substance which covers the sides of the Alps is neither pure snow like that

round pace. We passed on as far as eye could see, and still we appeared to have made little way—still we were in the shadow of the same enormous mass of rock and snow, by the side of the same creeping stream. Lofty mountains reared themselves in front of us—horrid abysses were scooped out under our feet. Sometimes the road wound along the side of a steep hill overlooking some village-spire or hamlets, and as we ascended it, it only gave us a view of remoter scenes, 'where Alps o'er Alps arise,' tossing about their billowy tops and tumbling their unwieldy shapes in all directions,—a world of wonders! Any one who is much of an egotist ought not to travel through these districts; his vanity will not find its account in them; it will be chilled, mortified, shrunk up; but they are a noble treat to those who feel themselves raised in their own thoughts and in the scale of being by the immensity of other things, and who can aggrandise and piece out their personal insignificance by the grandeur and eternal forms of nature! It gives one a vast idea of Buonaparte to think of him in these situations. He alone (the Rob Roy of the scene) seemed a match for the elements, and able to master 'this fortress, built by Nature for herself.' Neither impeded nor turned aside by immoveable barriers, he smote the mountains with his iron glaive, and made them malleable; cut roads through them; transported armies over their ridgy steeps; and the rocks 'nodded to him and did him courtesies.'"

of the summits, nor pure ice like that which forms the Lower Glaciers, but is an assemblage of both. It contains less snow than the Summit Glaciers; because the summer-heat has more power to dissolve it, and more snow than the Lower Glaciers, the dissolution of snow being comparatively slower. Mont Blanc presents the most extensive glaciers, extending for many miles around its sides, its summit, and amidst its surrounding valleys. Of these glaciers perhaps the Glacier de Bois is the most striking; Mr Coxe says, that the appearance of it at a distance was tremendous. Numerous and broad chasms intersect it in every direction, so that at first view it appeared as if a tumultuous sea had been suddenly frozen. Entering upon it, however, it was found that courage and activity only were required in order to cross it. Having descended upon the glacier itself, the travellers observed numerous rills, produced by the thawing of the ice on the upper part of the glacier. These rills hollow out channels for themselves, and, accumulating in their progress, precipitate themselves into the chasms of the glacier with the most violent noise, and, finding an outlet under the immense arch of ice in the valley of Chamouni, form the river Arve. "Having proceeded above an hour," continues Mr Coxe, "we were astonished with a view more magnificent than imagination can conceive. Before us was a valley of ice twenty miles in extent, bounded by a circular glacier of pure unbroken snow, named Takul, which leads directly to the foot of Mont Blanc; to the right rose a range of magnificent peaks, the intervals filled with glaciers; and far above the rest, the magnificent summit of Mont Blanc." He continued to ascend the valley of ice, the scene constantly increasing in magnificence and horror, till he arrived at last at the foot of the eminence named Couvercle, from the top of which they had a view of three of the Glaciers, Takul on the right, Talefre on the left, and L'Echaut in front, all uniting in the great one, called the Glacier de Bois. Here the crash of falling fragments from the mountain, and of large stones loosened by the melting of the ice, tumbling into the immense chasms, with the roar of congregated waters rushing unseen at the depth of 80 or 100 feet, inspire a feeling of awful sublimity, which it is impossible to describe. But these fields of ice, magnificent and astonishing as they certainly are, must yield in sublimity to the stupendous summits rising in particular peaks, called *horns* by the Germans; and many of which, gradually diminishing towards their summits, end in sharp points called *needles.* From these summits, the ice and snow often descend in what are called *avalanches,* or prodigious masses of hardened snow which, gathering as they roll down the declivities, sometimes overwhelm travellers and even whole towns and villages. Nay, the very mountains themselves will sometimes burst, and overwhelm whole districts, as happened in the memorable instance of Pleurs in the Valteline, near Chiavenna, in which many thousand human beings perished; and has very lately been exemplified in the instance of the Rosenberg, a large mass of which mountain being detached by the undermining influence of rain and melted snow, fell into the lake of Lucerne, overwhelming irresistibly every village in its way.

Climate.] Italy, extended between the 38° and 46° of N. lat. is exposed to a considerable degree of heat in summer and cold in winter; but the influence of the seas which wash its peninsular shores, and the mountains which surround or intersect it, counteract the effects of its latitude, and produce a temperature excluding every extreme and rendering all its seasons delightful. However, as the action of these causes is unequal,

the climate of the country, though everywhere genial and temperate, varies considerably. Without entering minutely into all, or many of those variations—the effects of the bearings of the different mountainous ranges, —Italy may be divided into four regions, which, like the Sister Naiads of Ovid, while they have many features in common, have also each a characteristic peculiarity. The first of these regions is the vale of the Po, extending 260 miles in length, and 150 in breadth where widest. It is bounded by the Alps and Appenines on all sides but the E. where it lies open to the Adriatic. The second is the tract enclosed by the Appenines, forming the Papal and Tuscan States. The third is confined to the Campania Felix and its immediate dependencies, such as the borders of the bay of Naples and its islands, and the plains of Poestum. The last consists of the Abruzzo, Apulia, and Calabria.

The first of these regions or climates has been represented as perhaps the most fertile and the most delicious territory in the known world. This fertility is owing to the innumerable streams which descend from the Alps that border it on the N. and W., and the Appenines which bound it on the S. and furnish a constant supply to that majestic '*fluviorum rex, Eridanus.*' But while thus fertilized by mountain-rills and Alpine streams, and cooled in summer by occasional gales, it is sometimes invaded by blasts which chill its climate and give its winter some features of transalpine severity, slight indeed, as if merely to call the attention of the natives to that eternal repository of snow which rises continually before them, but sufficient to check the growth of such plants as, like the orange and the almond, shrink from frost, or pine away under its most mitigated aspect.

The second region is protected from the north by an additional range of mountains, so that it becomes less obnoxious to the action of frost, and is indeed more liable to be injured by the heats of summer than by wintry cold. Its productions accordingly improve in strength and flavour; its wines are more generous than those of Milan and Mantua, and its orchards are graced with oranges. It is, however, exposed to chill blasts occasionally; and not entirely unacquainted with the frosts and snows of transalpine latitudes.

In the third climate, that is in the delicious plains of Campania, Nature appears robed in such beauty, and pours forth all her treasures with such bounteous profusion, that it seems a terrestrial paradise, and has called forth the united powers and descriptive talents of the traveller, the historian, the poet, and the painter, to depict its beauties.

The plains of Apulia, which lie beyond the Appenines, with the coasts of Abruzzo and Calabria, form the last division, differing from that which precedes it in increasing warmth only, and in productions more characteristic of a southern latitude, such as the aloe and the majestic palm.

These distinctions of climate are confined principally to the plains; as the mountains which surround them vary according to their elevation, and at the same time enclose valleys which in the S. enjoy the cool temperature of Milan, and in the N. glow with all the sultriness of Abruzzo. The chief inconvenience of the Italian climate is what is denominated in the Levant, the *malaria*,—a pernicious distemperature of the air arising from the many marshes and stagnant lakes in the centre of the country; and, in addition to the fiery eruptions of Etna and Vesuvius, it is exposed to the terrible effects of frequent earthquakes, and the enervating sirocco or hot wind which blows from the opposite coast of Africa.

Productions.] The produce of Italy is various. It possesses almost every kind of grain and every species of fruit which are known in the rest of Europe, together with some almost peculiar to itself. In the southern regions are found cotton, rice, and the sugar-cane, natives of a warm climate, and which in the greater part of the European continent cannot be brought to perfection. The kingdom of Naples, which constitutes the most southern part of this territory, abounds in rice, flax, oranges, olives, and vines. Manna and saffron are also enumerated among the produce of southern Italy. The produce of the central part is not probably much different, though there may be wanting several plants which require a greater degree of heat. It was formerly noted for its fertility and the high state of its culture; but has now lost every appearance of its former prosperity. Different kinds of fruit and grain, however, were the inhabitants industrious, might be here reared in almost any quantity. The northern districts have few of those articles which characterize warm countries; but the fertility is very considerable, and in some places, the inhabitants retain that spirit of industry which their more southern brethren have long forgotten. The quadrupeds of Italy are not different from those in other parts of Europe: the buffalo seems to be the only animal found here which is confined to this part of the continent. This animal is totally distinct from the bull; his appearance is savage and rude, but his disposition appears not to be ferocious. The flesh is not equal to that of the bull; but the skin, though extremely light, is so hard as to have been formerly used in the construction of defensive armour. The cattle are represented as being of an inferior breed, little attention being paid to them; though, in the management of the dairy, the natives in some places seem to have attained much skill. The crested porcupine is found in the southern districts. In the mountains which occupy the centre are sometimes seen the marmot and the ibex. Among the insects, the tarantula was formerly celebrated on account of the supposed effect of its bite. The Italian fire-fly is a beautiful insect. It is the glow-worm, winged, and flying in crowds. The Italian name is *Lucciola*, 'little light;' in Genoa, *Creebelle* (*Chiare-belle*,) 'clear and fine.' Its aspect, when held in the hand, is that of a dark-coloured beetle, but without the hardness or sluggish look. The light is contained in the under part of the extremity of the abdomen, exhibiting a dull golden partition by day, and flashing occasionally by day-light, especially when the hand is shaken. At night, their flashing of the purest and most lucid fire spangles the vineyards and olive-trees, and the dark avenues, with innumerable stars. It affords no perceptible heat, but is supposed to be phosphoric. In the mineral kingdom Italy produces crystals, agates, pumice-stone, obsidian, jasper, serpentine, garnets, tourmaline, alum, lava, basalt, puzzolane, talc, chalk, marble, alabaster, porphyry, gneiss, vitriol, saltpetre, salt, soda, sulphur, coal, gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, and antimony.

Agriculture.] Italy is possessed in general of a very fertile soil, which, under a happy climate, and with a blooming vegetation, is adapted to almost all the productions of Europe. But the inhabitants neglect those gifts of nature; and Italy, which with very little pains might be made independent of all Europe, is now indebted to foreign countries for a great many articles. The state of agriculture, even in the most fertile provinces, is faulty in the extreme, and in many parts the inhabitants are too lazy to cultivate the fields; one principal reason of this evil is that the peasants in Italy are liable to be constantly harassed by the proprietors,

who in general receive a stipulated proportion of the crop instead of a money-rent. This vexatious and depressing system is but ill-calculated to produce capital, or to encourage its application to the improvement of the soil. Several districts of Italy are, however, comparatively well cultivated, particularly Lombardy, Venice, Piedmont, and Tuscany; but those parts upon which nature has scattered her richest blessings, such as Naples, Sicily, and Sardinia, formerly the storehouses of the world, are still suffering under the evils of an oppressive feudal system. In good years Italy produces corn enough for its home-consumption, and even for exportation; but when the harvest is not good—which happens almost every third year—they are obliged to import from Africa and Hungary. Rice is extensively grown, and vegetables of all kinds. Oil is also exported in considerable quantity. De Chateauvieux divides Italy, as respects its agriculture, into three regions: The 1*st* is Lombardy or the great plain traversed by the Po, the fruitfulness of which allows the crops to succeed one another in a certain order which remains always the same. The 2*d* region extends on the S. declivity of the Appenines, from the frontiers of France to the borders of Calabria. This is the Olive country. The 3*d* region comprehends those pastoral countries where animals and vegetables thrive, but from which man has been expelled by the malaria or maremma. The gross produce of an English acre of ground in Lombardy is £7 16*s*., which, supposing the rent which land can here afford to be, as in Britain, one-third of the gross produce, gives £2 12*s*. for the rent of the acre. The rice-grounds are let at fixed rents of about 160 francs the arpent, or about £5 6*s*. an English acre.

Wines.] Italy, from its genial climate and its ranges of mountains, which present every variety of soil and exposure, might be expected to abound in the finest wines. All these advantages are, however, thrown away among a lazy and ignorant people. The greatest errors are committed by the Italian peasantry in the culture of the vine; and the ruin of the wine is completed in the manufacture. " But, on this point," says Mr Henderson, " the ignorance, the obstinacy, and the carelessness of the natives are almost incredible. No pains are taken to separate the different species of grapes, either in the planting or in the vintage; they are gathered indiscriminately, and often before they are ripe; and as the landlord generally divides the crop with the tenant, and each makes his own wine, they are liable to be much bruised before they reach the place where they are fermented; no nicety or cleanliness is shown in conducting that process, or in removing the liquor into the cask; in short, the wine is often spoiled irrecoverably, before it has left the vat." The wines of Tuscany are, however, of a better quality, though they do not rank with those of France or Germany. " The *Aleatico*, or red muscadine, which is produced in the highest perfection at Montepulciano, between Sienna and the Papal State; at Monte Catini, in the Val de Nievole; and at Ponte-a-Moriano, in the Lucchese territory, and of which the name in some measure expresses the rich quality; has a brilliant purple colour, and a luscious aromatic flavour, but without being cloyed to the palate, as its sweetness is generally tempered with an agreeable sharpness and astringency. It is, in fact, one of the best specimens of the *dolce-picanti* wines; and probably approaches more than any other to some of the most esteemed wines of the ancients. The rocky hills of Chianti, near Sienna, furnish another sort of red wine, which is made from a different species of grape, equally sweet, but rather less aromatic: and at Artimino, an ancient villa of the

Grand Dukes, an excellent claret is grown, which Redi places before the wine of Avignon. The wine of Carmignano is also held in much estimation. These are the chief red wines of Tuscany. Formerly several white sorts were made, of which the *Verdea*, so called from its colour, inclining to green, was in high repute. Frederic II. of Prussia preferred it to all other European wines; and, in the time of our James I., to have drunk Verdea is mentioned among the boasts of a travelled gentleman. The best used to be made at Arcetri, in the vicinity of Florence. Next to it ranks the Trebbiano, so called from the grape of that name, and much extolled for its golden colour and exquisite sweetness; being, in fact, rather a syrup than wine.—The wines of the Neapolitan territory maintain a much higher character, especially the sweet wines which grow on the volcanic soils of Vesuvius, of which there are three principal sorts; viz. 1*st*, The *Lacrima Christi*, a red luscious wine, better known by name than in reality, as it is made but in small quantity, and chiefly reserved for the royal cellars; 2*d*. a muscadine wine of a rich amber colour, and fragrant aroma; and 3*d*. the *Vino Greco*, also a sweet wine, deriving its appellation from the grape that yields it." The same observations apply in their full force to the Sicilian wines.

Silk.] Of all countries in Europe, Italy grows most silk, and the management of it is very well understood, particularly in Piedmont and in Lombardy. The *Phalena Bombyx* is the insect most commonly propagated in Italy and Europe for silk; but the *Phalena Atlas* yields a greater quantity: almost all the silk cultivated in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom is sent into France to be manufactured. According to Count Dandola, the amount of raw silk and silk articles exported from Italy, in the years 1807–8–9 and 10, amounted in all to 334,580,628 lira Milanese, being an average of 83,646,157 lira Milanese annually, or £2,790,671 18*s*. sterling, calculating the lira Milanese at 8d. sterling, which is within a fraction,—being 76$\frac{3}{4}$ centimes.

The insect from which silk is procured, reposes motionless for the period of nearly six months, in a minute round body, called the ovum or egg. From thence it springs under the form of a little elongated animal with eight pairs of feet, a caterpillar, or larva. This caterpillar, improperly called silk-worm, feeds on the leaves of the mulberry. It increases rapidly in size; so much so, that its skin in six or seven days after birth cannot contain the internal organs. In its turn this skin bursts, and the little insect comes forth in a new dress, advancing toward another stage of maturity for seven days more. There are altogether, under this state of being, four distinct changes of skin. When the silk-worm feels that it is about to quit its fifth skin, it looks out for a secure and retired situation, and there constructs a dormitory, where it may be safe from external contingencies. It then spins its silken web, disposing it in such a manner as to leave an oval cavity within. This ball is called the cocoon. The larva casts off its last skin in this abode, to become a being of another order.

Manufactures.] No progress whatever has been made in Italy, in any branch of manufacture, in modern times. The Italians are dependent for almost every object of industry upon England, Germany, France, and Switzerland. The tradesmen who are found in the Italian towns are but indifferent workmen, and generally inferior to those of other countries. It is in the fine arts, and all that belongs to these, that the Italians are most distinguished, and no country in Europe has produced so many fa-

mous artists. Their goldsmiths and jewellers work with great taste, and though their glass manufactures are now surpassed by those of Great Britain and Germany, their spectacles, telescopes, and barometers, still preserve their ancient reputation. Italy taught Europe the growing of silk,—an art which had been brought to that country from Byzantium by king Roger in 1130. Genoa, Florence, Milan, Turin, and Venice, produced in the middle ages the finest gold and silver brocades, damasks, velvets, silk-stockings, and ribbons; and these articles are still manufactured in Italy, but not in the same quantity, and not so good as in other countries. The glass and mirror manufactures of Venice have outlived their ancient reputation; and china and stoneware, though invented in Italy, is much better produced in France, Germany, and England. Iron is only well wrought in the neighbourhood of Brescia. Paper is good, and parchment excellent. The soap of Venice, in which only the finest soda and oil are used, is much esteemed.

Commerce.] There was a time when Italy flourished in all the arts of peace. The fleets of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, covered all seas; and all the riches of the world as then known, were brought by way of Italy to the European market. This flourishing epoch of Italian commerce lasted through the whole of the middle ages; but its commerce declined rapidly after that Vasco de Gama had discovered a passage round the Cape. Italy has almost no active commerce whatever at this moment. Its unprotected vessels dare scarcely leave the coasts, and except a few Venetian ships which sometimes sail under the Austrian flag to Africa, scarcely any Italian vessel will venture beyond the columns of Hercules for dread of the African pirates, who sometimes visit the Adriatic: though of late their depredations have been checked by the Austrians possessing the coasts, and Corfu being in the hands of the English. The interior commerce of Italy, though animated, is nevertheless subjected to many vexatious restraints which check its extension. Among these are the jealousy which exists between the different States, and the badness and insecurity of the roads in many parts. Leghorn may now be considered as the only town of Italy in which a considerable commerce is carried on. La Valette is the staple place for the commerce with Africa. The articles of exportation are silk, rice, fruit, oil, salt, some wheat, musical instruments, colours, antiques, and paintings. The importations consist of almost all kinds of manufactured productions, colonial merchandise, iron, lead, fish, and cattle. It is doubtful whether the balance stands in favour of this country or not. Travellers from all nations, especially from Great Britain, who visit this beautiful and classical country, import and circulate very considerable sums of money. Among the higher classes some very rich people are found, and almost all landed proprietors are possessed of wealth to a certain degree, at least it is their own fault if they are not. But, on the other hand, a great part of the lower classes, particularly in the southern districts, exist in the utmost misery: the only alleviating circumstance in their lot being the fine climate, in which men may live almost without shelter, and where food also is more easily procured.

CHAP. III.—INHABITANTS—LANGUAGE—LITERATURE—MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

The population of Italy has been supposed to have amounted to 36,000,000 in the reign of Augustus Cæsar. But when we consider that slavery is hostile

to agriculture and to population,—and when we reflect that the agriculture of Italy was chiefly carried on by slaves,—and add to this the consideration of the social and civil wars which for more than seventy years devastated Italy and extirpated some of its most ancient nations, as also the moral dissipation and debauched celibacy that succeeded the comparatively severe and sober manners of the more ancient Romans, the supposition of such an extensive population appears to be destitute of truth. Strabo, Virgil, and Lucan—who all flourished about the period in question, and must be considered as eye-witnesses of what they affirm—admit the fact of a decreased population, and the two latter deplore it in strains of poetic lamentation. The elder Pliny, who flourished under Trajan, estimates the Italian population at only 14,000,000. Italy is perhaps as populous now as at any period of its history, although some parts of it, as the neighbourhood of Rome, and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, are less so than they are known to have been in ancient times. The population in 1826, according to Cortambert, was as follows: The Sardinian dominions 4,137,300; the Lombardo-Venetian States, 4,087,000; Tuscany, 1,241,900; Parma, 437,400; Modenese territories, 376,400; Lucca 143,400; the Ecclesiastical States, 2,425,400; the Neapolitan dominions, 6,991,800; the Republic of San-Marino, 7,000, and the duchy of Massa-Carrara, 37,500. Total, 19,884,100. The following table, however, as it shows the result of a census in the three principal Italian States, we consider to be upon the whole the nearest to the truth:

		Population.
Kingdom of Sardinia and Piedmont, (census of 1826)		3,889,687
Lombardo-Venetian States, (census of 1825)		4,237,301
Republic of San-Marino, (M. Balbi)		7,000
Duchy of Massa,	do.	29,000
—— of Modena,	do.	350,000
Principality of Monaco,	do	6,500
Duchy of Lucca,	do.	143,000
—— of Parma,	do.	440,000
Grand Duchy of Tuscany,	do.	1,275,000
Papal States,	do.	2,590,000
Kingdom of Naples, including Sicily, (census of 1824)		7,116,040
	Total,	20,083,528

This population may be considered as composed of only one nation,—the Italians; for the few Greeks living on the coasts of the Adriatic and in Sicily,—the Germans who are found in some parts of the Venetian States,—and the Jews who are dispersed throughout this country, do not exceed at the utmost 200,000 individuals; and the Italian language is everywhere that of the higher classes, of the pulpit, and of business. In Savoy alone the French has superseded the Italian.

National Origin and Character.] The Italians are not one of the primitive tribes of Europe; they are the descendants of a motley mixture of Gauls, Germans, Arabs, and other nations, who have at different times invaded this beautiful country, and mingled with the aborigines in such a manner that the primitive features of each tribe have been entirely effaced, and the whole have become a single nation united by a single and highly-cultivated language. The Italians are a remarkably fine race of men, not in general very tall, but well-made, vigorous, and active. Their complexion is in general dark, though occasionally, particularly in the northern

districts, very fair complexions are also found; their features are regular and expressive; their motions lively; their eyes bright and animated; the hair in general dark, but often auburn, or even quite fair. The women have beautiful black or auburn hair; but in the north of Italy, as in Lombardy and Geneva, fair hair is common. They have fine and expressive eyes, regular features, and a very fine complexion, but rather pale than coloured, and their freshness and beauty fade sooner away than is common with their sisters in the north. The Italians are neither so solemnly grave as the Spaniards, nor so volatile and inconstant as the French. They are ingenious, polite, and eloquent; sincere and firm to their friends; but passionate and vindictive when offended. They possess every element in them to be one of the first nations of Europe, and it is entirely owing to the disgraceful misgovernment under which this beautiful country has laboured for many generations, that they are so much behind other nations in political and moral rank. A warm love of freedom, and an ardent desire to throw off the yoke of the foreigner, are prominent among the educated classes, at least in the north of Italy, and have not been extinguished by the unhappy failures in their attempts. Indeed, if we consider the state of civilization in Italy, and the manner in which every means, religious and political, have been for so long a time employed to put down all progressive movement, to check every effort for the diffusion of knowledge, to suppress all the nobler feelings of human nature,—we shall see cause to wonder not that Italy stands not so high as it ought to stand, but that we do not find it much lower than it actually is, and will feel ourselves compelled to admire the character of a nation which has been able to preserve so many fine features, under the iron scourge of a despotism which would have long ago thrown them into the deepest abyss of social degradation if superior qualities of mind had not supported them. And however unsuccessful most of their struggles for freedom have been, still they have shown that the Italians are worthy of the boon they crave, and have prevented that kind of tame submission and ignoble resignation to the yoke of tyranny under which all the qualities which raise mankind above the brutes are most easily effaced! "Schiavi siam si!" says Alfieri, "ma schiavi agnor frementi!"[5] The Italians are more fond of cultivating the elegant arts than the abstract sciences. Their nobility and gentry live mostly in town; and lay out their money more frequently upon fine houses, gardens, pictures, paintings, and statues, than on luxurious tables, and hence temperance is a prominent feature of Italian manners. They are fond of pomp and show, a passion long fostered by the genius of the Catholic form of religious worship. The marriage-ties are said to be of very little value in Italy; but this vice must be restricted to the higher orders. The middling ranks are much attached to their native customs; and show little desire either for innovation or improvement. In common with their continental neighbours, they delight in masquerades, villegiaturas, concerts, games of chance, horse-races, and conversations or assemblies. The crime of assassination—so often imputed as a national vice to the Italians—is not so common as has been pretended; and prevails more or less in all southern countries. But this crime has been much checked of late both by the French and Austrians; who strictly prohibited every person from carrying arms of any description. Deliberate murder is very seldom committed in Italy. The Italians are early risers; but, like the other inhabitants of

[5] We are slaves,—yes! but slaves who rage under the yoke.

southern climates, take a nap after dinner. The climate not only by the effect it has upon the bodily feelings, but also by the great facility with which the first necessaries of life are procured, operates as a check upon activity, and leads the people to indulge in the *dolce far nienti,* 'the sweetness of doing nothing,' as they very expressively say. The genius of poets and painters is naturally developed in this fine country. The art of improvising, almost unknown in the rest of Europe, is common even among the lower classes in this country. Italy alone can boast of having produced men equally great as painters, sculptors, architects, and poets. The Italians are passionately fond of music, and their taste for it seems more delicate than that of any other nation. The dress of the lower classes is national, and varies according to the different districts of the country; it is very picturesque and becoming; that of the higher ranks is French throughout, except that in some parts, as in Genoa, the ladies, and in fact women of all classes of society wear a veil, which they know to throw over their head and part of their figure in an exquisitely graceful manner. Such are the leading features of a nation which still ranks among the most civilized of Europe, though it has long ago lost its political independence. Modifications of the general character are of course to be found in the different districts, and shall be shortly noticed when we come to treat of the individual States. The charitable disposition of the Italians ought to be mentioned; all their towns are crowded with hospitals and infirmaries, but it will not surprise the economist to know that with all this apparatus for discharging the offices of charity, there is scarcely any country in which beggary is carried to so great an extent, and which is so full of vagabonds caring for nothing but the present moment and the means of enjoying it, as Italy.

Religion.] The Roman Catholic religion is established throughout Italy, and is here exhibited in all its magnificence. Protestant communities are only to be found in some of the valleys of Piedmont, and they labour under very hard restrictions, but in general the Italians are far from being intolerant. Freedom of conscience is indeed sanctioned by law only in the Lombardo-Venetian States, and the duchies of Parma and Lucca; but it is *de facto* established everywhere; and protestants, Greeks, and even Musselmen may without fear approach the head of the Catholic church. The small number of Greeks living in Italy are united with the church of Rome. The clergy are very numerous. The number of bishoprics in Italy formerly exceeded that of the whole Christian community in other parts of the world; but it has been greatly reduced, and so have the convents with which the towns were at one time crowded. The churches are in general very wealthy, and ornamented with the most splendid productions of art; and the rites of worship are performed with great pomp.

Language.] The origin of the beautiful Italian language is lost in darkness. The very general idea that it has been formed by a mixture of the Latin, as we have it still in the works of ancient authors, with the dialects of the Barbarian invaders of Italy, seems erroneous. The Latin of Cicero and Horace was only the written language of the Romans, and not that of the people which must have more or less differed from it; and that the written language itself should have suffered corruption from a mixture with barbarous dialects cannot be presumed, when we consider the truly admirable purity with which the ancient Roman continued to be written in the earlier period of the middle ages, and long before the revival

of classic literature. When the language of common life underwent an entire transformation at the invasion of the northern tribes, besides the new dialects which now sprung into existence, a new written language also was gradually formed, though the ancient Roman still continued to be written. The formation of this new written language however made but slow progress, as poets and scholars for a long while despised it, considering the use of it as a barbarous apostasy from the Latin. The present state of the Italian language, and of the different dialects, supports this opinion. In no part of Italy is that idiom, of which the exquisite harmony acts like a spell upon us even in the most insignificant literary productions, spoken in its purity as the language of the people; and it is a great error to believe that the language of Boccacio is to be heard from the lips of the Tuscan peasants. Even the dialect of Tuscany itself has its peculiarities, in which it differs from the language of Italian literature. Accidental circumstances only, Florence being the native place of some of the great masters of Italian literature in latter times, and some of the academies formed at Florence, particularly that of *la Crusca*, having assumed a kind of literary dictatorship, have raised the Tuscan dialect—which on account of its harsh guttural sounds is rather disliked by other Italians—to a leading place amongst the others. In our subsequent chapters we shall give some notices of the different dialects.

Modern Italian approaches nearer to the Latin language, and bears a closer resemblance to its illustrious parent than its twin-sisters the French and Spanish. No resemblance can be traced between the soft and harmonious Italian, and the rough and discordant sounds of the northern tribes. The only circumstance of importance in which Italian differs from Latin, is the use of articles and auxiliary verbs,—that dead weight which barbarism has imposed upon all modern languages; and all that Italian barbarism has borrowed from barbarous dialects, or from unknown sources, does not, according to the learned Muratori, exceed 1000 words. Sweetness is the prominent feature of the Italian. All modern dialects admit its superior charms; and the genius of music has chosen it for the vehicle of his most melodious accents. All its sounds are open and labial. It flows naturally from the organs; and requires nothing more than time and expansion to give it utterance. No grouped consonants stop its progress, no indistinct murmurs choke its closes; it glides from the lips with facility, and delights the ear with its fulness, its softness, and its melody. As to the want of energy in Italian, it is a complaint which a person may make who has never read Dante, Ariosto, or Tasso, who in energy of diction and sentiment yield only to Homer and Virgil. It is pronounced with greatest accuracy and perfection at Rome.

Literature.] The literary history of Italy in ancient times is well-known to almost every one. The Romans long remained better skilled in war than in speculative learning and the politer arts. After they had conquered Greece, the civilization of that polished country excited the admiration and stimulated the imitation of its conquerors. When Rome had extended her conquests over almost every part of the world with which her sons were acquainted, the arts of peace began to be cultivated, and the more abstruse as well as the polished parts of learning—though in many respects but the reflected form of the parent arts of Greece—were carried to a state of perfection which has been and is still the wonder of succeeding ages. To enumerate the writers and artists of Roman times would be only to inform every one of what he already knows.

When the empire of the West was overturned by the barbarous nations by which it was surrounded, Roman learning was buried under its ruins. The most corrupted and degraded species of Christianity became the established religion; every thing connected with learning was forgotten; and during some centuries that amount of ignorance here prevailed which has caused them to be emphatically styled *the dark ages.* During these ages, Italy was not more enlightened than the other nations of Europe; but when knowledge began to revive, Italy was the first place which felt its influence. The monuments of ancient learning and elegance in this country had not been entirely destroyed. The study of these prodigiously promoted the improvement of those faculties which have been distinguished by the name of taste; and the modern Italians soon regained a share of that celebrity by which their ancestors had been exalted. Several of the popes fortunately became the patrons of knowledge and of genius. The devastations committed upon Constantinople by the barbarians of the East caused many of the most accomplished Greeks to seek shelter in the West; and Italy, in a short time, became the most polished nation of Europe, the spring from whence the arts and sciences flowed to the other European nations. For a period of two centuries Italy stood at the head of European civilization; but it preserved this high station only so long as its different States preserved their independent power and commerce; with their decay the literature of Italy began to sink, and has never since regained the point at which it then stood.

In the time of Charlemagne we find an Italian, Peter, deacon of Pisa, mentioned as his instructor in grammar. Lothar, Charlemagne's son and successor in Italy, protected the sciences, and established the first public schools in many towns. Of the teachers of these schools one is known to us, Dungalus of Pisa, from whom, while still a monk at Bobbio, Charlemagne obtained explanations concerning an eclipse of the sun. Lothar's example was imitated by Pope Eugenius II.; but the want of good teachers lessened the utility of these establishments, which suffered also from the invasions of the Moors and Hungarians. Among the historical writers of this epoch, Paulus Warnefried, surnamed Diaconus, author of a history of the Langobards, holds a distinguished place. In the 10th century the schools of medicine at Salerna became celebrated. The study of jurisprudence received a new impulse from the establishment of freedom in the cities, and throughout the whole of Italy schools of law were established, among which that of Bologna, in which the learned Irnerius taught Roman law, became the most celebrated. Many distinguished lawyers flourished at this period, among whom we only mention Gratian, who may be considered as the founder of the canon law. There are numerous historical writers in the 11th and 12th century, as Arnolphus, the two Landolphuses, Sire Raul, Morena, Acerbus, and Godofredus Malaterra, and several chronicle writers. Among the theological authors of this time were the celebrated archbishop of Canterbury, Lanfrancus, and his scholar, Anselmus, and Petrus Lombardus, who lectured in Paris: in philosophy, or rather dialectics, Gerardus of Cremona, who translated the works of Avicenna from the Arabic into Latin, and John, surnamed the Italian, who brought the works of Plato and Aristotle from Constantinople. From the end of the 12th to the close of the 13th century, the literature of Italy gradually assumed a more flourishing aspect. Hitherto all the works had been written in barbarous Latin, but attempts were now made to write in the language of the people, the *lin-*

gua volgare, which was yet in its infancy. The first efforts of this kind were—as is always the case—poetical. The earliest Italian poetry took its rise from that of the Provençales. While the language and poetry of Provence attained its highest state of cultivation, and Spain and Portugal had already produced poets of great celebrity, the Italian was not yet numbered among the European dialects. But the Provençales and Troubadours now became welcome guests at the courts of the Italian princes, and their chivalrous poetry was admired and imitated. As a proof of the high estimation in which the Troubadours were held, we may instance the solemn visit which Raimondo Berlinghieri, count of Barcelona and Provence, accompanied by a number of Provençalian poets, paid in 1162 to Frederick Barbarossa at Turin. The emperor was so highly delighted with his visitors that he not only made them rich presents but wrote a madrigal in their language. The court of Azzo VII. of Este, held at Ferrara from 1215 to 1269, was attended by several celebrated Provençales. Maestro Ferrari, Alberte Guaglio, and Malaspini, native Italians, wrote in the Provençalian language of their own time; but there remain only a very few relics of these Italian Trobadours. The first attempts at writing poetry in the native language of Italy were made in Sicily, where the *lingua cortegiana*, or language of the court, had already been cultivated, and was distinguished as the purest and softest of the Italian dialects, and well-adapted to poetry. It was highly encouraged by Frederick II., who held his court at Palermo from 1198 to 1212, and by his natural son Enzo, and his celebrated chancellor, Pietro Delle Vigne, who enrolled themselves among the Sicilian poets, in company with Ciullo d'Alcamo, Jacopa da Lentino, Arrigo Testa, and some others of whom we still possess a few specimens. Before the end of the 13th century the Sicilian dialect was generally adopted in Tuscany; but after 1300 Sicily ceased to furnish Italy with standard writers, and we must turn to Florence, Bologna, and other towns of Tuscany, to behold the founders of the ancient school of Italian poetry.

Foleachiero is perhaps the earliest Tuscan poet known to us, but the most celebrated is Guido Guincelli of Bologna. Guittone d'Arezzo, Guido Cavalcanti, and Ugolino Ubaldino, are Tuscan poets; and the history of Florence by Ricordano Malaspina (1280) may even now be pronounced not inferior in composition to the best Italian works extant. After what we might call the preparatory epoch of Italian poetry was passed, appeared the inspired Dante Alighieri, born at Florence in 1265, who, in his *Divina Commedia*, exalted Italian poetry to a height unknown before and never surpassed since. He died at Ravenna on the 14th of September 1321. Dante was the father of his country's poetry,—the creator of her poetical language; and "demonstrated," to use the words of Sismondi, "the mightiness of his genius, by availing himself of the rude and imperfect materials within his reach, to construct an edifice resembling in magnificence that Universe whose image it reflects. Instead of amatory effusions addressed to an imaginary beauty,—instead of madrigals, full of sprightly insipidity, —sonnets laboured into harmony,—and strained or discordant allegories—the only models in any modern language which presented themselves to the notice of Dante—that great genius conceived, in his vast imagination, the mysteries of the invisible creation, and unveiled them to the eyes of the astonished world." We stand astonished before that mind which overcame so many difficulties in an entirely new and unformed language, and gave existence to a poem of a hundred cantos in so difficult a metre,

which has been and will remain the admiration of every succeeding age. The university at Bologna attained great celebrity during this epoch; and in the beginning of the 13th century was attended by 10,000 students from all parts of Europe, while the universities of Padua, Arezzo, Vicenza, and Naples, contested the palm of superiority among themselves. Among the most celebrated prose writers of this epoch were Popes Innocent III. and IV. and Urban X. Among the theological writers were Thomas of Aquinum, Bonaventura, and Egida Colonna. Aristotle began to be known about this time in Italy, and Thomas of Aquinum commented upon his works at the command of the Pope. Mathematics and astronomy, united with astrology, were also studied; and Campano, the most learned mathematician and astronomer of his time, wrote among other works a commentary upon Euclid. The schools at Salerno took the lead in medical science, and among the celebrated physicians of this time were Pietro Musandino and Mauro; in surgery—which was still more cultivated—Rolando and Bruno were highly skilled. But no science had made greater progress in the 13th century than that of jurisprudence. The principal lawyers of this age were Azzo of Bologna, Ugolino del Prete, and Accorso. The principal historians were Goffredo of Viterbo, Giovanni Colonna, Riccobaldi, and Malaspina; but besides these there were a great number of others, as almost every State had its own chronicle writers. Grammar—which then comprehended the belles lettres—had been hitherto entirely neglected, but was now cultivated by Buencompagno, Bertoluccio, Galeotto, and Brunetto Latini, the latter of whom was remarkable as having been Dante's preceptor. To this age also belong the celebrated travellers Marco Polo, his father Matteo, and his uncle Nicolo, who were among the first Europeans who performed distant travels in Asia, and contributed to a better knowledge of that part of the world.

In the 14th century science and literature continued to advance amidst wars and political struggles. Among the poets, the first great ornament of the 14th century was Francesco Petrarca, born at Arezzo in Tuscany in 1304. He died at Arqua, near Padua, in 1374. He enjoyed the honour of receiving the poetical laurel in the capitol of Rome in 1341. He was enthusiastically admired by the whole nation, and is not only celebrated for his poetry, but also for his extensive learning. Next to him ranks his friend Boccacio, who was born in 1313 and died in 1375. His most celebrated work is the *Decamerone*, a collection of one hundred novellettes, in which he gave a degree of polish to his country's language unknown before. Among the poets of the 15th century we remark Pulci, who in his *Morgante Maggiore*, led the way to the great Ariosto, and Bojardo, whose *Orlando Inamorato* is a poem of the same class. The protection which the illustrious House of Medicis gave to the arts and sciences in the 15th century, greatly contributed to their advancement; and other princes and families of influence, as the Visconti, Sforza, Este, and the kings of Naples, entered into generous rivalry with the Medicean family in the encouragement which they gave to the fine arts and sciences. After the invention of printing, public and private libraries were established, and the ancient works of Greece and Rome were eagerly resuscitated from the sleep of ages. Among the divines of this time Nicolao Malermi or Malerbi executed the first Italian translation of the whole Bible, and Platina wrote a history of the Popes. The study of philosophy also received a new impulse and direction from the arrival of the exiled Greeks in Italy. Johannes Argyropulos, a Greek, ranked among his pupils

Cosmo de Medicis, Theodore Gaza, Cardinal Bessarion, Marsilius Ficinus, and the celebrated Pico of Mirandola. In astronomy—which was still mixed up with astrology—Giovanni Bianchino, Domenico Maria. Novara the teacher of the great Copernicus, and Paolo Toscanello, are celebrated writers of this period. Antonio Cermirone, Giovanni Marliano, and Gabriel Zerbi, practised medicine with much success; and the study of jurisprudence was kept in estimation by the writings of Christofero di Castiglione, Pietro Filippo Corneo, Alessandro of Imola, Nicolo Tedeschi, and Felino Sandeo. History too made happy progress, not only in truth of narration, but also in beauty of style. Among the very numerous historical writers of the 15th century, we name Blondo Flavio, Pietro Ranzano, Æneas Silvius,—afterwards pope Pius II.—who left numerous historical works, Puggio, Sabellino, Malvezzi, Biglia, Tristana Calchi, and Pandolfo Collenucio. Christofero Buondel-Monte, who travelled in Asia about this period, Francesco Berlinghieri who wrote a work on geography in verse, Caterino Zeno, and the celebrated navigators Columbus, Amerigo Vespucci, and Cabotto, greatly contributed to the advancement of geographical science. It was between the years 1500 and 1650 that modern Italy attained the pinnacle of her greatness. Her wealth,—the power of her republics and princes,—her zeal and liberality in every thing likely to restore her ancient splendour,—excited the admiration of all Europe. Among the popes, Julius II., Leo X., Clement VII., Paul V., Gregory XIII., Sextus V., and Urban VIII., gave distinguished support to learning; and the cardinals Bembo Carlo, Federigo Borromeo,—who founded the *Bibliotheca Ambrosiana*,—and Agostino Valerio, deserve notice for the patronage they afforded to men of science. Among the princes of this period distinguished for their love of science and art were the Gonzagas at Mantua, the Este at Ferrara, the Medicis at Florence, and duke Charles Emanuel of Savoy. At the head of the poets of the 16th century we place the charming Ariosto, born at Reggio in 1474, and who died at Ferrara in 1533. Bernardo Tasso, who was born in 1493 at Bergamo, and who died at Astiglia in 1569, though a good poet was greatly inferior to Ariosto, and infinitely surpassed by his son Torquato Tasso. Among the other poets of the 16th and beginning of the 17th century were, Trissino, Sannazar, Berni, Bembo, Guarini, Tassoni, and Marini. We may also notice the poems of fifty noble and virtuous ladies which were published by Domenichi in 1559. In theology, Cajetan, Bellarmine, and Diodati whose translation of the Bible is one of the best extant, belong to this epoch; and in mathematics and natural philosophy the great Galileo, M. Agnesi, Bonaventura Cavalleri, Luca Valerio, Castelli Torricelli who invented the barometer, La Grange, and Plana. In medicine, natural history, and botany, Fracastori, Malpighi, Aldrovandi, and Mattioli, are distinguished. Macchiavelli ranks as one of the first historical and political writers of modern times; Davila, Guicciardini, and Bembo, also deserve notice. Bandello, Firenguola, Strapacola, and Giraldi Pallnarino have written some good works of fiction belonging to this period.

After the middle of the 17th century, Italy began to sink from its intellectual eminence. The decline of commerce and wealth, and the restrictions on the press have operated as powerful checks upon the progress of knowledge; but we still find some distinguished Italian authors in all branches of literature. Filicaja, the painter Salvator Rosa, Forteguerra, Pindemonte, Casti, Alfieri, Monti, Ugo Foscolo, and Manzoni, have successfully courted the muse. In moral philosophy Italy has no modern

author of reputation. Maffei, Muratori, Denina, and Botta, are her most distinguished modern historians. Beccaria and Filangieri have written well on jurisprudence. Zannoni and Coronelli are the most celebrated geographers of Italy. Cassini and Piazzi have made important discoveries in astronomy and natural philosophy. Natural history and medicine have been successfully cultivated by Volta, Fantoni, Torti, and Borelli. Crescimbeni, Guadia, and Tiraboschi, have written largely and well on the belles lettres. One of the earliest Italian *improvisators* was Serafino d'Aquila, born in 1466. Andrea Marone was a celebrated poet of this class in the age of Leo X.; another of the 16th century was Silvio Antoniano. Perfetti of the 17th century is one of the most celebrated; he was crowned in the capitol. M. Pistrucci is the most distinguished improvisator of the present day. On any given subject he immediately speaks off with surprising fluency, and in any measure of rhyme.

The Fine Arts.] The art of painting was brought by Grecian masters into Italy and Germany in very early times. The beginning of the history of the art of painting in Italy is generally placed in the 12th century; but Greek and Byzantine artists visited Italy at a much earlier period. In 441, under Pope Leo the Great, a large picture in mosaic was placed in the cathedral of St Paul, on the road of Ostia. In the 8th century, paintings on glass, mosaic, and enamel were common. In 1200 a school of painting was established at Venice by a Greek artist called Theophanes; but the true Italian style of painting originated in Florence. We may divide the history of Italian painting into three epochs. The first epoch extends from Cimabue to Raphael. Cimabue—who was considered by his cotemporaries as a miracle of art—was the first who introduced just proportion in painting. He was born in 1240 at Florence; but was surpassed by his scholar Giotta. Leonardo da Vinci, born in 1444, raised the art of painting to perfection. The first seat of the Roman school was at Perugia. Pietra Perugino, born in 1446, greatly raised the reputation of this school; but his scholar Raphael surpassed all his predecessors, and still leaves all his successors at an immeasurable distance. The other great painters of this epoch were Andrea Mantegna, Giorgione, Titian, Bramanti, Francesco Francia, and above all the great Antonio Allegri da Correggio. The second period embraces the works of Fra. Bartolemeo, born in 1469; of Andrea del Sarto, born in 1488; of Michael Angelo Buonarotti, born in 1474, whose vast genius embraced sculpture, architecture, and painting; of Raphael Langio da Urbino, born in 1483, the ideal beauty of whose pictures has never been attained by any succeeding artist; of Guilio Romano, Garofalo, Fiziano Vercelli, Paolo Veronese, Francesco Mazzola, and Parmegionino. The third period begins with the three Caracci, who had numerous scholars. The most celebrated artists of this epoch are Guido Reni, born in 1575, Francesco Albani, Domenichini, born in 1581, Lanfranco, Michael Angelo da Caravaggio, Carlo Maratti, and Spagnioletto. The best modern artists are Camoccini of Rome, Grassi, Benvenuti of Florence, Appiani, Sabbatelli, Agricola of Rome, and Urbino. Tommaso Finiguerra is the earliest Italian engraver; Antonio Raimondi of Bologna, Caracci, Bartolozzi, Cunego, Bettelini, and Rafael Morghen, attained great eminence in this art. The principal sculptors of ancient Rome were Greeks. The Italian sculptors rose into notice in the 11th century. We can merely mention some of the most celebrated names, as Buono of the 11th century, Nicolo

Pisano, who died in 1270, Lorenzo Ghiberti, who died in 1455, Donatello, Andrea Verrochio, Michael Angelo Buanorotti, Sansovino, Bundinelli, Benvenuto Cellini—who was sculptor, goldsmith and painter,—Tropeazia Rossi, a celebrated female artist, Bernini, Cavacessi, and Canova.

Music.] Ambrose of Milan, in the 4th century, introduced church music into Italy. Gregory the Great, in the 6th century, did much to improve the science, and established singing-schools throughout Italy. Great improvements were made in the 11th century, particularly by Guido d'Arezzo, who improved, if he did not invent, the art of musical notation. Instrumental music was successfully cultivated in the 14th and 15th century, and in the 16th we find distinguished composers and singers, as Palestrina and Allegri. In the year 1624 the first opera was performed at Venice. The most celebrated Italian composers and artists are Lulli, Corelli, Caldara, Tartini, Clementi, Jomelli, Pergolese, Piccini, Sachini, Sarti, Paesiello, Cimarosa, Salieri, Cherubini, Metastasio, and Rossini.

State of Education.] The means of education provided for the lower classes in Italy are of the most wretched and inefficient description which can be imagined. The schools are almost exclusively in the hands of the priests, and are miserably conducted. In numerous villages there are no schools at all, and among the common people the proportion of those who are able to read is very small. In Tuscany something has been done of late to improve popular education, but even there it still remains entirely in the hands of the priests; and in the Sardinian States and Modena the Jesuits have an entire sway over the schools. No country has perhaps so many of the higher seminaries and establishments for education as Italy; but no where are they in a state of worse organization. In the colleges, lyceums, and gymnasia, teaching is still conducted according to the most antiquated system, and the branches of study are almost entirely limited to the dead languages and logics; even mathematics are every where wretchedly taught, and most of its professors, if not all, are priests. The universities too, with a few exceptions, are very ill-managed. The following universities are now existing in Italy: viz. Salerno, founded in 1100; Bologna, 1119; Naples, 1224; Padua, 1228; Rome, 1248; Perugia, 1307; Pisa, 1329; Sienna, 1330; Pavia, 1361; Turin, 1400; Parma, 1422; Florence, 1443; Catania, 1445; Cagliari, re-established in 1769; Sassaria, 1765; and Genoa, founded in 1783. The university of Modena has also been re-established. There is no general academy of science, but numerous literary associations exist in all the principal towns. The Academia della Crusca at Florence is one of the most celebrated. There are a great number of splendid libraries in Italy; they are particularly rich in manuscripts, but very deficient in modern literature. The most celebrated are those of the Vatican at Rome, the Ambrosian library at Milan, that of St Mark at Venice, and those of Magliabecchi and Medicis at Florence. In no country are museums and galleries of pictures so numerous and so splendid as in Italy, besides the numerous treasures of art strewed all over the country in the churches and other public edifices. The most celebrated collections of art are at Rome, Florence and Napes.

Italian States.] Italy consists of several isolated States, united by no particular tie, and which cannot be considered as a whole in political respects. Every State has its own government and its own laws: although Austria exercises a great, most oppressive, and pernicious sway over the

whole country, having not only possession of one of the largest and most powerful States in it, but also predominating influence in the grand duchy of Tuscany, and the duchies of Modena and Parma.

We shall now proceed to describe the different countries of Italy in the following order:

I. The kingdom of Sardinia, including the principality of Monaco.
II. The Lombardo-Venetian kingdom.
III. The Duchy of Parma.
IV. The Duchy of Modena, with Massa and Carrara.
V. The Grand Duchy of Tuscany.
VI. The Duchy of Lucca.
VII. The Republic of San Marino.
VIII. The States of the Church.
IX. The kingdom of Naples and Sicily.
X. The island of Malta, belonging to Great Britain.

The island of Corsica has been given to France, of which it forms a department.

CHAP. IV.—THE KINGDOM OF SARDINIA.

Extent.] The king of Sardinia takes the royal title from the island of Sardinia, which, however, does not form the principal part of his States, the most important of which are situated on the continent of Italy. The possessions of the king of Sardinia are; 1*st*, The principality of Piedmont, with Montserrat and the Sardinian part of Milan; 2*d*, The county of Nice or Nizza; 3*d*, The duchy of Savoy; 4*th*, The duchy of Genoa: and 5*th*, The island of Sardinia. Hassel estimated the total superficial extent of this kingdom at 28,800 English square miles, of which 19,125 were upon the continent, and 9675 in the island of Sardinia. Galanti and Mayer's maps give a surface of above 30,000 square miles to this kingdom.

Boundaries.] The Sardinian continental territories are bounded by the Austro-Italian States and the duchy of Parma on the E.: the Valais and the Leman lake on the N.; France on the W. and N.W.; and the Gulf of Genoa on the S. They constitute the western part of Northern Italy, and extend from 43° 44′ to 46° 20′ N. lat. and from 50° 40′ to 10° E. long. Their greatest length from Nice to the Leman lake is 200 British miles; and their greatest breadth from the Rhone on the W. to the junction of the Po and Tesino on the E. is 135 miles.

History.] The nucleus of the Sardinian monarchy was the small Alpine country of Savoy. This State—the remains of the ancient kingdom of Burgundy, the Franconian monarchy, the kingdom of Italy under the Carlovingians, and the kingdom of Arelat—became independent under Count Bertholo, who, according to tradition, was a descendant from the Saxon Wittikind, and who had been named Count of Savoy in 1016 by Rudolph III. the last king of Arelat. In 1032, after that Arelat had been united to Germany, Humbert I. Rudolph's son, acquired the lordship of Chablais and some possessions in the Valais from Conrad II.; and his grandson Otto, by marriage with the rich countess of Susa in 1050, succeeded to several extensive districts of Piedmont, as Susa, Aosta and Turin. The possessions of this House—which split but once into two lines—gradually increased, and in 1383 count Amadeus VI. declared

the indivisibility of the country. Count Amadeus the Red obtained Nice in 1338, and Amadeus the Peaceful—who had purchased the territory of Geneva and obtained by donation the town and lordship of Vercelli—received in 1416 the title of Duke of Savoy from the emperor Sigismund. Duke Charles I. assumed the title of King of Cyprus and Jerusalem, after that his uncle's wife, the heiress of Cyprus, had in 1485 conferred upon him her rights to these countries. The position of the dukes of Savoy, however, became dangerous when the struggle for Italy between France and Austria commenced. Duke Charles III. lost nearly his whole possessions in the course of these disputes; and it was not till after the peace of Chateau-Cambresis had been concluded in 1559 that duke Emanuel Philibert succeeded in healing the wounds of his devastated country, from which the Valais, Geneva, and the Pays de Vaud had been wrested: the two former having placed themselves under the protection of the Swiss confederacy, and the latter having been taken possession of by Bern. Philibert obtained by exchange in 1576, the principality of Oneglia, and by purchase the county of Tende. Excited by the Pope he endeavoured to put down the protestants, of whom there were many in his country; but he was several times defeated by them in their mountain-fastnesses, and was at last obliged to grant them free toleration. This prince, however, did much to encourage industry among his subjects; and by the extensive plantations of mulberry-trees which he formed, laid the foundation of much of the present wealth of his country. He also established several fortresses, and built the citadel of Turin. His son Charles Emanuel I., who died in 1630, and his grandson, Victor Amadeus I., who died in 1638, did little for the good of their country, being constantly at war with their neighbours. Charles Emanuel II., who died in 1675, introduced some improvements; but the power of the House of Savoy was principally increased by Victor Amadeus II., who in the war of the Spanish succession obtained, for his adherence to the cause of Austria, the duchy of Montferrat by the treaty of Turin in 1703, and the districts of Alessandria, Valenza, Lomellina, and Val de Sesia, and by the peace of Utrecht in 1713 the island of Sicily, which in 1720 he was obliged to exchange for that of Sardinia; he also obtained the rank and title of a king. In 1730 he resigned the government to his son Charles Emanuel III., who enlarged his territories by alliances with France, Spain, and Austria. Under his good administration the wealth of the country was greatly increased. He also promulgated in 1770 a new code of laws, the *Corpus Carolinum*, and maintained the concordat of 1726 against the encroachments of the court of Rome. He was succeeded in 1773 by his son Victor Amadeus III., who involved himself in the war against the French republic, and lost Savoy and Nice; the Piedmontese, however, maintained their valleys with the aid of the Austrians, till Buonaparte, after having defeated the Austrians in 1796, vanquished the Piedmontese at Ceva and Mondavi, and threatened Turin, upon which the king concluded a peace, in which Savoy, Nice, Tende, and Oneglia were ceded to France, and the nine principal fortresses of Piedmont were placed in the hands of that power, to be occupied by French troops until the conclusion of a general peace. His son Charles Emanuel IV. allied himself on the 5th of April 1797, with France against Austria; but was compelled by the French directory to renounce the possession of his States on the continent, and to retire to the island of Sardinia. During the temporary success of the Austrians in Italy, Piedmont was occupied

by them; but the battle of Marengo forced them to yield this country again to the French, and a temporary republic was formed, which lasted until the 11th of September 1802, when Piedmont was incorporated into France. The king further abdicated the crown of Sardinia on the 4th of June 1802, and retired to Rome where he became a Jesuit in 1817, and died on the 6th of October 1819. His brother Victor Emanuel I. succeeded him, and continued to reside at Cagliari till recalled by the peace of Paris to Turin, which he entered on the 20th of May 1814. France was allowed to retain the half of Savoy; but this also, with Monaco, was restored by the treaty of the 20th November 1815, and Carouge and Chesne, two districts with 12,700 inhabitants, given to Geneva. Unfortunately the king and his advisers, among whom were his confessor Botta, and count Roborent, had lost none of their antiquated political ideas during their exile; every new institution was abolished by these sages,—all the old feudal laws, majorats, primogenitures, and prerogatives of the nobility, which had been abolished by the French government, were reinstituted,—Jesuits and convents were anew taken under royal patronage, and the age of darkness restored. Such proceedings could not fail to excite a general spirit of discontent, which was further fomented by the want of representative constitutions so generally felt over all Europe, the desire of Lombardy to throw off the Austrian yoke, the wish of all Italy to recover political independence, and the example of the Spanish and Neapolitan revolutionists. A plan was therefore organized to change the form of government in Piedmont, and to give the country an administration better fitted to the spirit of the times. The leaders of the revolution which broke out in 1821 were the first men of the nation not only in talents, but also in social rank. They induced the prince of Carignan, the heir presumptive to the crown, to join them; and the Spanish constitution, which had already been introduced at Naples, was, with a few modifications, thought the most proper for Piedmont. Unfortunately the leaders were not all agreed upon this point. Nevertheless the Spanish constitution was proclaimed, and the king requested to give his assent to it; but his minister, count St Marzano—whose son was himself one of the leaders of the revolution—arrived at this juncture from the congress of Laibach, and so terrified the king with the displeasure of the Austrian government, and its threats to occupy the country if any thing like a constitution was attempted to be established in it, that he resigned the crown, and leaving the prince of Carignan regent in the absence of his brother, retired to Nice. The prince of Carignan swore to the constitution, and named a new ministry, while a corresponding movement was begun in Lombardy; but an Austrian army advanced upon the frontiers of Piedmont, and the new king, Charles Felix, declared his disapprobation of all proceedings carried on since the abdication of his brother, and named the count Della Torre to the command of that part of the troops in Novaria which had not joined in the revolution. In Turin, however, the constitutional ministers, counts Santa Rosa, Del Pozzo, and the canon Marentini remained at their post, but the prince of Carignan fled to the Austrian head-quarters at Novaria; these events, the defeat of the Neapolitans, and several other circumstances, soon brought every thing to an end; the constitutional troops were defeated at Novaria, the Austrians occupied the fortresses, and the revolutionists only saved their lives by hasty exile. Never had a revolution been conducted with more moderation and gentleness; but those who had shown so much lenity towards

their oppressors when they held them in their power, met with none when they were vanquished. The king having entered Turin, absolute government was restored in its worst form, and the prince of Carignan was banished from the court of his uncle. In 1823 he went as a volunteer with the French army to Spain, in order to expiate by the aid he thus lent to the restoration of despotism, the feeble and unsuccessful attempt he had been prevailed upon to make for the release of his fair and unhappy country from the shackles of a government opposed to sound reason and to all the nobler feelings of men. He is now again at Turin. The noble-minded Santa Rosa, after having failed in his exertion for the liberty of his country, devoted himself to the cause of freedom in Greece, and fell fighting as a private soldier at Navarino.

Physical Features.] The States of the king of Sardinia present very diversified scenery. Savoy, according to its physical features, does not belong to Italy; it is a truly Alpine country, separated by an enormous ridge—the Grey Alps—from the peninsula, and throughout intersected by high mountains, the summits of which are covered with snow and ice. Piedmont with Montferrat forms the large valley which begins at the pass of Susa and ends at the eastern boundaries of Italy. The Po divides it into two equal parts. The northern extremity reaches to the foot of the Alps, forming the boundaries of Switzerland; the southern is separated by the Appenines from the coast-districts; the boundaries on the side of France are formed by the Cottian Alps. The maritime districts are those of Nice and Genoa, which surround the gulf of Genoa, and are separated from the rest of the continent by the Appenines; both are mountainous countries. Sardinia is also very mountainous; it is a barren country intersected by several ridges of small elevation, through which run two large rivers bordered with marshes and swamps. Savoy and Piedmont have their principal declination towards the Mediterranean; and the large valley surrounded by the Alps and Appenines slopes imperceptibly towards the Adriatic.

Mountains.] The mountains of continental Sardinia are: 1*st,* The Sea Alps, which here do not rise above 5,000 feet; one of the best known is the Monte Cornio, which, on account of the narrow pass which leads over it from the county of Nice into Piedmont, is also called the Col de Tenda; 2*d.* The Cottian Alps, which form the boundaries between France and Piedmont, and of which the high summits are absolutely barren, but the vanguards which stretch into the provinces of Caneo and Turin are covered with rich pastures and forests of chesnut-trees; 3*d.* The Grey Alps, which run from Mont Cenis, by the Iseran and the little St Bernard, to the Col de bon Homme, and separate Piedmont from Savoy; 4*th.* The Pennine Alps run from Combin to Mont Cervin and Mont Rosa, and separate Piedmont from Savoy and the Valais; they are the highest of all the Alps, many of these mountains are covered with everlasting snow and ice; and 5*th.* The Lepontine Alps which run on the boundaries of Piedmont, from Mont Rosa to the Col de Gref, and form the boundary with the Upper Valais.

Rivers.] These ridges contain the perpetual fountains which feed the large streams of water that flow down on both sides towards the Adriatic and the Mediterranean, the latter of which seas washes the coast of the continent for a space of 180 miles, and forms the large gulf of Genoa, one of the most magnificent in the world, with its two small basins of Rapallo and Spezzia. The rivers running into the Mediterranean are: 1*st,* The Rhone, which receives the Isere, the Guier, and the Fier, all be-

longing to Savoy; *2d.* The Var, which forms the boundaries between Nice and France; *3d.* The Paglion, another river of the county of Nice; *4th.* the Magrà, a Genoese river. From the Sardinian mountains run into the sea; *5th.* The Fiume d'Oristano; *6th.* The Flumendoso; and *7th.* The Coquinas. To the Adriatic belongs the water of the largest basin of the kingdom, that of the Po, which receives the whole mass of water running down from the Alps and Appenines. Its most considerable tributary rivers are on the right side: *1st.* The Vraita; *2d.* The Maira; *3d.* The Tanaro; *4th.* The Serivia; *5th.* The Curano; *6th.* The Staffora; *7th.* The Tidone; and *8th.* The Trebbia; on the left side, *9th.* The Clusone; *10th.* The Dora Riparia; *11th.* The Orco; *12th.* The Dora Baltea; *13th.* The Sesia; *14th.* The Gogna; *15th.* The Ticino. These rivers give great fertility to the plain of Piedmont through which they run.

Lakes.] The southern side of the lake of Geneva belongs to Savoy, and of the Lago Maggiore the western side belongs to Piedmont. Among the smaller lakes are the lake Du Bourget in Savoy, 627 feet above the level of the sea, and at its greatest measurement 240 feet deep; the lake of Annecy also in Savoy, 1,335 feet above the level of the sea, and 180 feet deep; and many small lakes. There is a very beautiful lake almost on the summit of the Mount Cenis. A number of mineral springs are found in the Sardinian States.

Climate.] The climate is very different in the different provinces of Savoy. In the valleys it is often the finest spring, when the high grounds are yet covered with deep snow. The air is not mild enough for the southern fruits; however the winter lasts only a few months in the valleys, and the vine and chesnut prosper. The valley of Piedmont belongs according to Saussure to the Northern region of Italy, where the mercury sometimes sinks to 10° under the freezing point of Reaumur. In the middle of summer the cold *tramontana* blows from the Alps, and in the neighbourhood of the mountains the ground remains covered with snow for a fortnight; but the air is healthy, the vegetation is blooming, and the vine, rice, Indian corn, and mulberry-tree prosper. The coast-land is separated from the rest of the country by the Appenines which protect it against the *tramontana*, and its climate is that of the second region of Italy. Olives and the fruits of the south prosper here; but the mistral and even the sirocco are felt at Nice and Genoa. Sardinia belongs to the most southern region of Italy; but the mountains produce mild winters and temperate summers by the periodical return of the North winds which cool the burning atmosphere. The climate is healthy, except in those districts where standing waters produce putrid fevers in the heat of summer.

Soil.] The soil of Savoy is exceedingly stony, and not favourable to extensive agriculture; it has a few plains not of great extent, and some narrow valleys; the fertile earth lies in a thin strata on the rocks, and is often washed away by the torrents. The alluvial soil in the large valley of Piedmont, Montferrat, and the Piedmontese part of Milan is almost everywhere level and very rich. On approaching the Alps and Appenines banks of pebbles are found. The whole plain is covered with a black vegetable mould of great fertility; and the surrounding mountains pour a great abundance of water into this valley, which is made use of for the purposes of irrigation, there being few meadows which are not provided with a canal or a sluice. The coast-land is not like Piedmont; it has a different soil, another vegetation, and another climate. The soil or Sardinia is extremely fertile, notwithstanding the scarcity of water and

the want of rain; the fertility of the cultivated spots is very great, and Sardinia might still be—as it was in the time of Rome and Carthage—the storehouse of Italy,—but the half of it is allowed to remain a desert, and a great part of the country is a complete wilderness; the canals which formerly intersected this island are neglected, and pestilential swamps have in consequence been produced.

Productions.] The Sardinian States form an agricultural country, but the soil is very different in the different districts. The same agricultural system is followed in the continent and on the island; but it is more perfect in Piedmont and the rich valley of the Po than any where else. The arable land is divided into large properties; and the landed proprietors divide their estates into small portions among farmers, who seldom become proprietors, but in general however the land passes from father to son. The proprietor gets the half of the harvest as it is, instead of a rent; and for the use of the cattle which are his property, and the meadows, he is paid in money. A part of the tools and implements of husbandry also in general belong to the proprietor, and only the furniture of the farm-house is the exclusive property of the farmer. The farmers are in general, particularly in Savoy, between the Alps and the Appenines, very poor; but the most wretched are those of Sardinia, who are still burdened with all the oppressive feudal laws. The great landed proprietors are in general wealthy and often rich; in many parts of the country the production of silk forms an additional source of employment and revenue to the farmers, and improves their condition greatly. In the Appenines, and parts of the Genoese territory, the peasants are proprietors of the soil; but their only wealth consists in chesnuts, sheep, and olives. Corn, Indian corn, rice, beans, and tobacco, are the principal objects of agriculture. Genoa and Nice, where the soil is mostly rocky and sandy, produce very little corn, and are usually supplied from Piedmont and Sardinia. Piedmont, Savoy, and Sardinia, are by their excellent pasture-grounds particularly well-adapted to the rearing of cattle which forms an important branch of agriculture. In Piedmont and Savoy horses are neither numerous nor of a good breed, and are less used for agriculture than oxen, but in Sardinia there are three breeds of horses: viz. the wild horse, living in deserts and forests, very little, but well-made and swift; it is very difficult to be caught, and still more difficult to be tamed; the common plough-horse; and a fine breed which yields in beauty to none in Europe. The public races held in every town and village have greatly contributed to improve this breed. The mules are not so fine as the Spanish. Piedmont is not favourable for sheep, as all its meadows are watered; but in Savoy and Sardinia they are numerous and of an improved breed. Sardinia exports a great quantity of cheese made from the milk of sheep. In the mountains of Sardinia is the *mufflon*, a kind of wild sheep, about the size of a deer. Domestic fowls are excellent in Piedmont where they are fed with Indian corn. Dogs are extremely numerous in Sardinia, and are of three different breeds of particular beauty. The honey of Savoy, particularly that of the valley of Chamouny is excellent. Silk is extensively produced in the Sardinian States, especially in Piedmont, the silk of which is thought the best in Europe, and exported in very considerable quantity. The olive grows not in Savoy, and not every where in Piedmont; but it is the principal production of the coast-districts, and the Genoese are very dexterous in the management of the oil. In Sardinia also whole forests of wild olive-trees exist. The production of wine is of great importance, but

the management of it is not well-understood; and though there are excellent kinds of grapes, no wine is fit for exportation except that of Sardinia, where the vine is of Spanish origin; palm-trees grow on the coast of Genoa and in Sardinia. Mining is very much neglected, though the mountains are rich in minerals, and gold is found in the sands of the Tanaro. The duchy of Aosta abounds in copper-mines; and in some places this metal is accompanied with antimony, arsenic, and zinc. Gold-mines exist in the neighbourhood of Mont Rosa; and in the valley of the Sesia there are the gold-mines of St Maria, and that of Cavavecchia also containing silver. Gold is likewise found in the mountains of Challand near the valley of Aosta; and pebbles of quartz, veined with the same metal, are rolled down by the torrent of the Evanson. A rich vein of cobalt was lately discovered a little to the E. of Mont Blanc; and black lead has been observed near the baths of Binay. It is sufficient to say that the mineralogic opulence of Piedmont almost rivals that of the southern side of the Carpathians. Fishing is carried on both in fresh and salt water; the latter is the most considerable, and belongs particularly to the Island of Sardinia. The thunfish fishery is said to produce in the island of Sardinia about one million of francs a year. The fishing of corals is also a very considerable source of revenue; it lasts from the end of April to the end of September.

Manufactures.] There was a time when Upper Italy was as famous on account of its manufactures and commerce as its agriculture. The silk-manufacture in particular was spread all over the country; and the velvet, silk, and stockings of Genoa were celebrated throughout Europe. But these manufactures notwithstanding that they have the best materials cannot now stand competition with other countries. Piedmont, in which about 20,000 cwts. of silk are annually produced, exports all this raw, except about 3,000 cwt. which are used in the manufactures of the country. Sufficient linen is scarcely woven for home-consumption; and in Savoy where flax and hemp are produced in considerable quantity they are exported raw to France. The manufacture of cotton and worsted cloth is quite insignificant; paper is made in considerable quantity and exported from Genoa; soap of excellent quality is also exported; and chocolate, maccaroni, vermicelli, and preserved fruit are particularly well-prepared here; the perfumes and scented waters of Nice deserve also to be noticed, though this manufacture at Grasse in France is far more considerable. There are a good many smelting furnaces in Piedmont and Savoy.

Commerce.] The staple articles of the kingdom of Sardinia for exportation are silk, rice, and oil; all the rest are of little importance. The surplus of corn grown in Piedmont is used in Genoa and Savoy, and the wine is almost all consumed in the country. Genoa is the only town which has a foreign commerce. It was in the middle ages one of the most flourishing commercial towns of Italy, but was not able to stand competition with Venice; nevertheless it preserved some degree of opulence till it lost its national rank and its independence. It is pretended that the customs of Genoa alone yet produce 20,000,000 of francs a year; but there is much reason to doubt this. The great road over Mont Cenis serves as a medium of intercourse between the Piedmontese States, and France and Switzerland. The road from Genoa to Sarzana is just finished; and this new communication, which has given fresh life to all the country through which it passes, is one of the most frequented routes in the north of Italy. The road from Genoa to Nice, which opens a

communication between the former city and Marseilles, has also just been finished. Among the acts of administration which do most credit to this government, is the introduction of the decimal system in the currency and measures, and the adoption of French money. This last regulation is the more beneficial as the Sardinian States are in daily contact with those of France.

Inhabitants.] The inhabitants of the kingdom of Sardinia are a motley tribe of Gauls, Romans, Langobards, Goths, Vandals, French, and even Germans. They may be divided however into: 1*st.* Piedmontese and Genoese, who, though both descending from the ancient Gauls, differ much in character and habits. The Piedmontese are the best soldiers among all the Italians; while the Genoese are a mercantile and agricultural people. Their dialect is very much mixed with words derived from the French; it is, however, generally spoken even in high life and at court, but not written; the written language is Italian. The Genoese have a particular manner of pronouncing the Italian by changing the sound of several consonants or omitting them. 2*d.* The Savoyards are entirely descended from the Gauls; and this origin is obvious in all their features and manners. Their language too is French; the common people speak a peculiar kind of patois. 3*d.* The Sardinians by the frequent change of their masters seem to have become a very mixed tribe, but are reckoned among the Italians. Their language seems to be a corruption of Latin, intermixed with Greek, Hebrew, Italian, Arabian, and Spanish words; and is almost unintelligible to an Italian. In some towns the language is the same as in Catalonia.

Religion.] The Catholic faith is the established religion of the Sardinian States. The convents which had been secularized by the French, were mostly re-established at the Restoration: even the Jesuits have been permitted to return, and colleges at Turin and Chambery have been granted to them. According to a concordat concluded in 1817, the church-government of all the Sardinian States has been placed on its original footing in the different provinces. The rights of the Pope are limited; and no bull can be published without permission of the king, who also names the archbishops and bishops, who are confirmed by the Pope. Christians of other persuasions are barely tolerated; but with the exception of the Waldenses or Vaudois, who are about 22,000 in number, and inhabit the valleys contiguous to the Hautes-Alpes of France, no sect forms a community here. The Waldenses take their name either from the valleys they inhabit, or from their teacher Petrus Waldus. The latter derivation, however, is the less probable; as their catechism, or *la noble Leçon*—as it is called—has been in use since 1120, and Waldus was only born in 1160. The Vaudois themselves carry back the history of their church to the time of Claude bishop of Turin; and they in all probability originated in a colony of refugees who took refuge in the mountains from the persecutions directed against the followers of that great confessor. In 1447, Innocent VIII., treading in the steps of his predecessors, issued bull upon bull for their extermination; and had not Philip VII., duke of Savoy, interposed, the work of destruction would have been completed. In 1559 the Count de la Trinité, at the head of a considerable army took the field against them; but was heroically repelled. In 1655 they were cruelly persecuted, and defended themselves bravely under the command of Joseph Gianavella, a smith, who several times defeated the Piedmontese troops. But, upon the powerful intercession of Cromwell, the persecution

was stopped, and peace concluded with the Vaudois, upon an express condition that their leader should be banished; Gianavella accordingly retired to Geneva, where he lived for many years afterwards in great reputation for piety, and died in peace, after having several times escaped being assassinated by Popish agents. The persecution was again renewed in 1685, when, according to Arnaud, out of the entire population of 14,000, no fewer than 11,000 perished. Of the survivors about 800; accepted the protection of the elector of Brandenburg, but the greater part settled in the Palatinate. The invasion of that province of the empire by Louis XIV. in 1689, led to one of the most extraordinary and successful enterprises ever achieved by a handful of determined men. In August of that year they assembled at Nyon to the number of 800, and under the command of one of their pastors, Henri Arnaud, crossed the lake of Geneva in the night; attacked and defeated the Marquis de Larrey at the head of 2,400 regular troops at Salabertan; ascended the opposite mountain the same night; pushed on to the highest village in the Col du Pis; routed another detachment of the enemy, and entered as glorious victors into their own land, whence they had departed little more than three years before as despised exiles. Since the year 1800, when Piedmont submitted to France, till 1814, the Vaudois were placed on the same footing with other subjects; but when Victor Emanuel arrived at Turin, notwithstanding the recommendation of lord Bentinck in their favour, he published a manifesto, by which he put in force all the edicts which his predecessors had issued. The committee of dissenting ministers in London laid before the British government a statement of the affecting situation into which these events had plunged the churches of the Vaudois, and earnestly but unsuccessfully recommended a renewal of a grant which had been made to these humble Protestants by William and Mary. His Sardinian majesty has, however, by decree of 10th January 1824, granted permission to his Vaudois subjects to build an hospital for their sick and infirm poor, and also to appoint physicians and surgeons of their own number. As the law formerly stood, no Vaudois could exercise the art of medicine.

State of Education.] Public instruction is entirely in the hands of the clergy and Jesuits. Gymnasiums and high schools exist in most of the large towns; but little else than Latin and scholastic theology are taught in them, and almost all the teachers are priests. Elementary instruction is unfortunately too much neglected in this country; and there are not perhaps five individuals in 100 who can read, write, and cypher. There are universities at Turin, Genoa, Cagliari, and Sassari; but the three latter are very insignificant. The censorship is severe; and almost no foreign books, and still less pamphlets and newspapers are allowed to enter the country. The most deplorable ignorance exists among all classes in Sardinia; in the other provinces the higher classes at least are well-informed. Among distinguished Italian scholars Piedmont claims as belonging to her, Alfieri, La Grange, Botta, Nota, Rossi, and Balbi.

Government.] The king of Sardinia is an absolute hereditary monarch; and the government is managed by a supreme council of State, a council of finance, a council of government, the council of Savoy, the senate of Turin, the council of Nice, and the council of Genoa. There is a code of laws, and the Roman law is consulted. The nobles have recovered, with other feudal rights, the right of administering justice.

Titles of the King.] The titles of his Sardinian majesty, are, By the

Grace of God, King of Sardinia, Cyprus, and Jerusalem; Duke of Savoy, Chablais, Aosta, Genevois, Montferrat, Genoa; Prince of Piedmont and Oneglia, Achaia, and the Morea; Marquis of Saluzzo, Susa, Italy, Ivrea, Ceva, Mino; Count of Asti, Nizza, Tenda, Alessandria, and Romont; Baron of Vaux and Faucigny; Lord of Vercelli, Pignerol, Tarantara Lomellino, and Sesia; and Prince and perpetual Vicar of the holy Roman empire.

Military Force and Navy.] According to Balbi, the Sardinian army in 1826, amounted to 26,000 men. The geographical position of the Sardinian States, lying between the frontiers of France and the Austrian dominions in Italy, obliges its sovereign to keep up a large force, and sometimes to join with the one and sometimes with the other to preserve his independence. On particular emergencies, the Sardinian troops have amounted to 40,000 men; which, if well-disciplined and commanded by able generals, and possessed of that formidable barrier, the Alps, should enable the sovereign to maintain his independence, or at least his neutrality. But the Sardinian troops have not been of late remarkable for courage, or distinguished for loyalty; and on the other hand, the Sardinian princes do not seem to have inherited the military talents and political prudence of their ancestors, the dukes of Savoy. The kingdom of Sardinia, by the annexation of the late republic of Genoa to its dominions, is become a maritime State. It is asserted that the mercantile marine at present amounts to 400 vessels fit for sea; and yet the Sardinian flag does not wave under the protection of consular authorities, except in the Mediterranean, the Archipelago, and the Black Sea. The Sardinian flag now and then shows itself in the seas of America, but only by the enterprise of her private navigators, and by the force of the spiri of the Genoese merchants: it is under no protection there, and may be almost said to be disavowed by its government. The national marine consisted in 1826 of 2 ships, of 54 guns, 1 frigate of 36 guns, and 9 inferior vessels.

Revenue.] The revenues of his Sardinian majesty were formerly estimated at £1,085,000 sterling; of which Piedmont contributed £953,750 Savoy £87,500, and Sardinia only £42,750. They must have received a considerable addition since the cession of the Genoese territories, and the ancient imperial fiefs, lying between the Parmesan on the north, and the Sestri de Levant on the south. M. Balbi estimates the total revenue of the kingdom at £2,680,000; and the debt at £4,124,000.

TOPOGRAPHY.—I. THE PRINCIPALITY OF PIEDMONT.

This country takes its name from its situation at the foot of the high Alps which divide it from Switzerland, Savoy, and France. Its surface, according to Lichtenstein's statistical table published in 1819, is equal to 12,310 English square miles. It forms a large valley on both sides of the Po, surrounded by high mountains. This province is divided into 23 districts. The principal town is Torino or Turin, the capital of the kingdom and residence of the king.

City of Turin.] Turin, like Genoa, though of ancient foundation—being the *Augusta Taurinorum* of Augustus Cæsar, and existing in the time of Hannibal as one of the towns of the Taurini, a Gaulish tribe inhabiting the banks of the Po—can boast only of modern fame. Its importance commenced in the 13th century, when it became the residence

of the princes of Savoy, and assumed the honours of a capital. This city, from its vicinity to France, has been subjected to various disasters from the time of Attila the Hun, who entered Italy in the 5th century, down to the era of the late revolutionary war. Francis I. took it in the 15th century, and demolished all the monuments of antiquity that had been spared by Attila. It was again besieged by the French in 1706, and would have fallen had not Prince Eugene, after a long and dangerous march of 34 days, joined the Sardinian army at Asti, and, in conjunction with the duke of Savoy, attacked the enemy in their camp, forced their intrenchments, and saved the town. In the late war, however, Turin yielded without even the formalities of a siege; and Piedmont, in spite of the Alps, was declared to be a department of France. Turin, which lady Morgan terms 'a little city of palaces,' is situated in a pleasant valley, near the confluence of the Dora Riparia and the Po, 40 British miles horizontal distance from the frontiers of France to the N.E. 80 miles N.W. of Genoa, and 90 miles S.E. of Chamberry in Savoy. It lies on the western bank of the Po, at the foot of a range of beautiful hills rising eastward beyond the river; to the northward extends a plain bounded by the Alps, sometimes rising in gigantic groups like battlemented towers, and at other times exhibiting to the eye insulated peaks reaching to the clouds like spires, and glittering with the dazzling whiteness of unmelted icicles and ever-during snows. It contains an elegant academy, an university, 110 churches, many splendid public and private edifices where marble of every vein and colour is lavished in profusion, but many of which are yet unfinished, four splendid gates adorned with pillars and cased with marble, and about 112,000 inhabitants. The streets are broad, clean, and straight; two of them, that of the Po and that of the Dora, are among the finest in Europe. The university-library is very extensive, and the biblical treasures it contains are immense; the royal palace is spacious and surrounded with delightful gardens. The court of Turin has always been remarkable for its politeness, elegance, and sobriety. There are 24 professors in the university who give daily lectures, and two spacious colleges dependant upon the university, which are well-frequented by students. The language of the inhabitants is the Piedmontese dialect; and that of the court usually French. Yet notwithstanding the close copying of French manners which has long characterized Turin, an affectation of English habits is much diffused among the politer circles at this period. The Lancasterian system of education has been introduced with great success here. Nigh to Turin is the splendid church of Superga, the burial-place of the kings of Sardinia.

Towns.] Carignano on the Po, a town of 7,229 inhabitants, is the family-place of the collateral line of the royal family which is about to mount the throne; but the ancient castle belonging to them is now in ruins.—Carmagnola, with 12,000 inhabitants, has a large silk-market held in June, which is one of the most frequented in Piedmont, and usually determines the prices over the whole country.—Chieri, with 10,060 inhabitants is one of the principal markets for silk, and the birth-place of the poet Robbio di S. Saffacio.—Aosta, a town with 5,550 inhabitants, situated between high mountains, in a narrow valley on the Dora Baltea, was in ancient times called *Prætoria Augusta*, and afterwards *Turinona.* About nine miles from this town is the Ponte d'E, a bridge of astonishing height, thrown over a rapid torrent, and uniting two mountains.—Carmaggiore, at the foot of the Mont Blanc is celebrated for its mineral springs.—Torea, a

town of 7,020 inhabitants, conducts a great trade in cheese.—Susa is a town at the foot of Mont Cenis with 2,000 inhabitants.—Pignerol, with 4,000 inhabitants, was anciently the residence of one line of the dukes of Savoy; it is the capital of the province of the same name. In this province lie the four valleys inhabited by the Waldenses, viz.; the valley of Lucerna inhabited by about 11,746 Waldenses, the most southern, the largest, and most populous of the four; Perosa, inhabited by 4,015 Waldenses; San Martino, with a population of 4,015 Waldenses; and Pragellato or Clusone, inhabited by 1,711 Waldenses.—Saluzzo is a town with 10,150 inhabitants.—Savigliano with 18,752 inhabitants, is a very fine town, situated in a magnificent and fertile plain.—Cuneo or Coni, with 16,500 inhabitants, conducts an animated commerce; it lies on the confluence of the Stura and Gesso.—Busca is a town with 7,900 inhabitants, situated in the centre of a very rich country watered by innumerable canals from the river Maira. There are some fine quarries of marble and alabaster in the neighbourhood.—Mondovi, a town of 21,557 inhabitants, has some manufactures and commerce. It was the birth-place of Viliotto and Beccaria, and is celebrated by the battle of 1796.—Montenotte, where Napoleon defeated the Austrians in 1795, is situated in the province of Alva.—The town of Asti between the Tanaro and Borbo has 21,225 inhabitants, and a magnificent cathedral anciently a temple of Diana. The wine of this place is thought to be the best in Piedmont. Asti was the birthplace of Alfieri.—Arqui on the Bormida, with 6,600 inhabitants, has a warm spring which was known to the Romans.—Alessandria della Paglia, on the Tonaro, with 30,216 inhabitants, is the strongest fortress in the Sardinian States.—Marengo is a small town on the Bormida with 2,200 inhabitants. It was here that Napoleon gained the celebrated victory over the Austrians in 1800, by which he became master of Italy.—Around Tortona, in latitude 44° 56′, much rice is grown.—Vercelli, a town on the Seria, with 16,162 inhabitants who are chiefly supported by the culture of silk and rice, has a cathedral in which the celebrated gospel which is said to be an autograph of the Apostle Mark is preserved.—Vigevano was the birth-place of Francis Sforza VI. last duke of Milano.—Arona, with 4,138 inhabitants, at the southern extremity of the Lago Maggiore, conducts a considerable commerce with Germany and Switzerland. It was the birth-place of St Charles Borromeo, whose gigantic metal statue, 112 feet high with the pedestal, stands on a hill near the lake.—At Varallo, a town built upon a mountain near the Sesia, is a famous church called New Jerusalem, to which numerous pilgrimages are performed.

II. THE COUNTY OF NICE OR NIZZA.

The surface of Nice according to Galanti is 65 German or 1462 British square miles; according to Lichtenstein it is only 62 German square miles. It is a perfectly mountainous region, situated to the S.W. of the maritime Alps, of which the highest summits, as the Col della Lunga, Col di S. Martin, and the Col di Tenda rise here. The climate is very mild, with a blooming vegetation. The winter is particularly fine; at Christmas the trees are in full blossom. The county of Nice is divided into 3 provinces, besides the principality of Monaco.

Towns.] Nice, with 19,645 inhabitants, is the chief town; it is beautifully situated on the Gulf of Genoa, at the mouth of the Taglion, with

a fine artificial harbour. The view towards the sea is splendid. The climate is so mild that this city is much resorted to by people in delicate health, and many English residents are always found here enjoying the delightful air. Nice was the birth-place of the mathematician Maraldi, the lexicographer Alberti de Villeneuve, the painter Vanloo, and the astronomer Cassini.—Villafranca is a fishing-town with beautiful roads capable of sheltering 100 vessels.—At Saspello, in lat. 43° 51′, figs are cultivated.—In the narrow valley of Scarena fine orange-trees and a great quantity of olives are grown.—At Turbia, a town of 724 inhabitants, the *Trophæa Augusti* stood, but it is now reduced to a heap of stones.—Oneglia, a town of 4000 inhabitants, has a great commerce in olives and oil. It was the birth-place of the celebrated admiral Andreas Doria.

Principality of Monaco.] Monaco is the capital of a small principality, formerly under the sovereignty of France, and now under that of Sardinia, it lies on a rocky neck of land covered with the *Cactus opuntia*, on the site of an ancient temple erected to Hercules Monecus, and contains 1,201 inhabitants.—Mentone is a small town in this principality, quite surrounded with lemon-gardens. A single garden often yields fruit to the value of from 10,000 to 15,000 francs. It was the birth-place of S. Bernard. Coals have been wrought at Rocca Bruna.

III. THE DUCHY OF SAVOY.

The name Savoy is said to be derived from the Latin *Sabaudia*. The surface of this province according to Lichtenstein is 176.43 German square miles; or 3,794 English square miles. Savoy is an entirely mountainous country, covered by the highest Alps and immense forests. The majestic Mont Blanc with its imposing glaciers and ice-fields rises here. The large rivers are the Rhone and the Isere; a part of the lake of Geneva belongs to Savoy. The climate is that of the Swiss Alps. The inhabitants are more like the French than the Italians; their language too is French, and a patois kindred to the French. The lower classes are in the most wretched state of poverty, and great numbers of them emigrate to earn a scanty livelihood by sweeping chimneys, exhibiting marmots, and playing upon barrel-organs. They have, however, a great attachment to their own country, to which they always return when they have made a little money. The duchy of Savoy is divided into 6 provinces or districts.

Towns.] Chambery is the chief town. It contains 11,991 inhabitants. The scenery around it is beautiful; but the town itself is indifferently built.—Aix is celebrated for its hot, sulphureous, and alum baths, which attract many strangers, and were known to the Romans as the *Aquæ Allobrogum*, *Gratianæ*, and *Domitianæ*.—Bourget is built on the lake of the same name, which is very rich in fish, particularly a very delicious fish called *lavaret*.—Annecy, a town of 5,467 inhabitants, has several considerable manufactories, especially those of printed cotton and glass.—At Thonon are very celebrated glass-manufactories where the best crystal glass in Savoy is made.—In the neighbourhood of Evian, on the lake of Geneva, is the bath of Amphion, where a considerable number of visitors assemble during the season.—Chamouny is a town in the valley of the same name, which is one of the longest valleys of Savoy, exhibiting most terrific scenery. The valley begins at the foot of Mont Blanc, and runs for the length of 20 miles between high mountains, rising on either side in the form of peaks; it is nowhere above three-quarters of a mile broad,

and in some places only 800 feet. Strangers who come to visit Mont Blanc, and the Mer de Glace, a very large field of ice, set off from Chamouny where they are supplied with guides.—At Moutiers in the Tarantaise, on the Isere, at the extremity of a terrific valley, is the only salt-work in Savoy, which produces about 19,400 cwt. of salt per annum. The salt spring flows from the mountain of Darbon.

IV. THE DUCHY OF GENOA.

History.] The most ancient inhabitants of this country were the Ligurians, who in the first and second Punic war were conquered by the Romans. After the dissolution of the Roman empire in the west, Genoa belonged to the great kingdom of the Langobards, and fell with them under the dominion of the Franks. On the partition of Charlemagne's empire Genoa became independent, and shared the fortunes of the Lombardian cities till the end of the 11th century. The situation of Genoa being favourable for commerce, the Levant trade flourished here earlier than even at Venice. In the beginning of the 12th century Genoa having become master of the Golfo de la Spezzia, a struggle ensued with Pisa, which lasted for 200 years, and was only terminated by the Genoese getting possession of the island of Elba, and destroying the harbour of Pisa. In 1174 Genoa possessed Montferrat, Monaco, Nice, Marseilles, almost the whole coast of Provence, and the island of Corsica. Her violent feuds with Venice were terminated by treaty in 1282; and her commerce reached its greatest height about the middle of the 13th century. At this time the whole of Constantinople was supplied by the bold merchants of Genoa, who had taken possession of Caffa, now Theodosia, in the peninsula of Taurida or the Crimea. They improved that port, and fortified and embellished the town with many buildings of which the ruins are still existing; and under their auspices Caffa became one of the finest commercial towns in Europe. The Genoese at this time also commanded the Black Sea, and a communication by the Caspian Sea, by which they received the costly merchandise of India. Had they carried on a reasonable colonial system, and endeavoured to unite the interests of their near and distant colonies with those of the mother-country, they might in the 14th century have risen into a commercial power like Holland; but when Mahommed II. conquered Constantinople, he seized the Genoese colonies on the Black Sea. Party spirit also agitated the interior of the State. The democrats and the different parties of aristocrats maintained an incessant struggle for political preponderance, till 1339, when a Doge was elected by the people as first magistrate for life, with a view to put an end to these contentions. But the struggle among the different parties continued, and civil anarchy arose to such a height that in several instances they submitted to foreign dominion. In the midst of these troubles the Bank of St George was founded in 1407. In 1528 a new and more permanent order of things was introduced, which subsisted till the end of the 18th century. The form of government was highly aristocratic; the Doge was first magistrate, he remained two years in office, and then became again a member of the senate, being only again eligible as Doge at the expiry of five years. The nobility were divided into old and new; and the Doge might be taken from either class. Genoa gradually lost all her foreign possessions; Corsica the last of them revolted in 1730, and was ceded to France in 1768. In 1797 the form

of government underwent a complete change under the French domination. Two years afterwards this part of the Genoese territory was retaken by the Austrians; but after the battle of Marengo it was again conquered by the French, and a new constitution was established here, under the name of the Ligurian Republic, in 1802, at the head of which a Doge was again placed with a senate; it was subsequently incorporated with the French empire. The navy of Genoa, once so formidable in the middle ages, at this period consisted only of 4 or 6 galleys, and some armed sloops; but her mercantile marine though only a shadow of what it was formerly, was still respectable. In 1813 when the reverses of the French armies had shaken the power of Buonaparte throughout Italy, the Genoese encouraged by England shook off the yoke, and received the English troops with cordiality under Lord W. Bentinck; and thereafter their envoy to the Congress made the most solemn protest against any resolution inimical to their independence. Yet Britain was afterwards weak enough to assist in transferring Genoa to the power of Sardinia,—a breach of faith and national honour for which she is still detested by the Genoese.

Physical Features.] This province is a small tract of about 2,500 square miles, extending along the coast, and separated by the Appenines from the rest of Italy. It is divided into two districts: viz.,—The Highlands which are almost entirely barren, and the *Riviera*, a small tract stretching along the coast from which it rises like a terrace. The Gulf of Genoa forms two others, the Golfo di Rapallo, and Golfo della Spezzia. The air is so mild that the most delicate fruits of the South prosper here.

City of Genoa.] The city stands on one side of the harbour, and spreads her streets, churches, suburbs, and villas, over a vast semicircular tract of crags, rocks, and declivities. The appearance of its white buildings, ascending in regular progression, is splendid and magnificent, and hence it has obtained the appellation of *Genoa*, or 'the stately.' The palace of the Doge, and the church of the Annunciation are its most splendid buildings. There is a public library with 50,000 volumes, and 1,000 MSS., and a royal university. It is a very ancient city, though it displays no vestige of antiquity. There are only two streets through which carriages can pass; the rest are all extremely narrow. The harbour to the S.W. of the town is one of the finest in Europe, but exposed to the S. winds. Its trade, though infinitely short of what it was in the days of its glory, is yet very considerable. In 1751, and subsequently in 1815 it was declared a free port. It exports the products of the adjacent country, such as rice and fruit, and in particular olive-oil, to a great annual value; also its own silks, damasks, and velvets, for the last of which it has long been celebrated. The yearly value of the different silk and satin-manufactures of Genoa is from £200,000 to £300,000; the raw material is partly raised at home, and partly brought from Calabria, Sicily, and the Levant. From Sicily and Barbary it imports corn; from the Baltic, iron and naval stores; from Germany, linen and sail-cloth; and from England, tin, lead, hardware, and cottons. For some years past, the town of Genoa has enjoyed a more easy communication with the north of Italy than previously, by means of a new road, substituted for that named the *Bocchetta*, so well known as a difficult pass, and as even impracticable in many seasons of the year. Balbi estimated its population in 1826 at 80,000; we are inclined to rate it with Stein and the editors of the *Dictionnaire Geographique* at 76,000.

Towns, &c.] Sarzana, with 2,977 inhabitants, was the birth-place of the painter Dominico Fiasella, commonly called Sarzana, and of pope Nicolas

V.—Spezzia, a town with a good harbour, on the gulf of the same name, has 3,010 inhabitants.—Copraja, an island between the most N. point of Corsica and Elba, is of volcanic origin, but rich in wine and vegetables.—Palmaria, another island near the coast, is covered with slate and calcareous rocks.—At Novi, on the great road to Piedmont, the best silk of Genoa is grown, and the commerce is animated between Piedmont and Genoa.—At St Remo, a town occupying a very picturesque situation on the sea-shore, a great quantity of oranges are grown.—At Bordighera the climate is so mild that numerous palm-trees grow in the vicinity.—Cervo on the sea-shore produces the best oil of Genoa.—Cogoleto on the coast was generally supposed to be the birth-place of Christopher Columbus; but by a law-suit which recently arose about some possessions in New Spain between the descendants of this great man, it has been ascertained that he was born at Cuccaro in Montferrat.

V. THE ISLAND OF SARDINIA.

Extent, &c.] Sardinia, according to Captain Smith, who very lately surveyed the whole coast by order of the British government, is the largest island in the Mediterranean sea, surpassing Sicily itself. From cape Tinlada its most southern point, in 38° 50′ N. lat. to cape Ripara its most northern point, in 41° 14′ N. lat. it is 162 British miles in length, and about 70 miles in average breadth; and contains an area of 11,340 British square miles. Azuni estimated its extent at 11,500 square miles of 75 to a degree.

Population] In 1750 the population of this island according to Dr Holland, amounted to 360,000 souls; but by a census taken in 1825, the population amounted to 400,607 souls, of whom 316,929 were adults, 83,678 children, and 1,138 were reported as absentees.

History.] This island is said to take its name from a hero of ancient times, called *Sardus*, who settled here with a colony of Greeks or Lybians, and changed its former name Ichnusa into that of Sardinia. The former name was known in the time of Alexander the Great, consequently about the 114th Olympiad. After having successively fallen under the dominion of the Romans, Vandals, and Saracens, of Pisa, and of Genoa, Sardinia was raised to the rank of a kingdom by the emperor Frederick I. in 1154. The popes several times endeavoured to obtain possession of this island, but as frequently failed. However, Bonifacius VIII. affected to give Sardinia to the House of Arragon, which, after some opposition, obtained quiet possession of it in 1324. It continued under Spanish dominion till 1708, when it was conquered by the English. In the peace of Utrecht it was formally given to Austria, but again wrested from her in 1717 by king Philip V. of Spain. At last Sardinia was given to the duke of Savoy in 1720, as an indemnification for Sicily.

Physical Features.] Polybius calls Sardinia: "Insula magnitudine et multitudine hominum et omnium fructuum excellens," and Pliny styles it 'the fertile Sardinia.' The latter attribute is still true, but the population has mightily declined. More than one-third of the island consists of large sandy and stony districts called *Macchie;* a considerable extent is composed of forests and pastures; the remainder, amounting to 4,400,000 acres is laid out in corn-fields, vineyards, olive-grounds, orchards, and gardens, for the subsistence of its population. About 800,000 acres are devoted to the culture of wheat, and if properly

managed would support thrice the present population. But the island is cursed with the evils of absenteeism, and the people are oppressed, as in Ireland, by rapacious factors. More than half the island belongs to Spanish proprietors. The marquis of Benevente alone possesses an estate of 1,600 square miles. Till the interior of the island was explored by captain Smith, it was a *terra incognita* to the rest of Europe.

Sardinia is intersected by two rivers flowing in opposite directions; the Oristano and the Flumindosa. The mountains are numerous, running N. and S.; but none of them rise to the height of perpetual snow. They are generally from 1000 to 3000 feet high. The highest are Monti di Ginargintee, on the eastern side, which rises to the altitude of 5,276 feet; Monti di Limbarra, at the N.E. angle, 3,686 feet in height; Monti Ferru, on the western side, 2,796 feet; Monti Santo, on the east side, 2,400 feet; Monti Minerva on the western side, 2,400 feet; the peak of Arauntu, on the S.W. side, 2,315 feet; and Monti Alba, 2,317 feet. In the northern division the principal mountains are Nurra, Sassu, Cagliari, Aggiu, and St Sassurguis; and in the southern division Barbaggio, Aritzu, Sarrabus, Budui, and Sulcis. Effects of volcanic action are clearly traceable to a great extent in the western and N. Western districts. Obsidian pumice, and compact lava abound in the district of the Cabo de Sassari. Several villages near Sassari are wholly built of pumice rock, and not less than 72 craters of extinct volcanoes are found in the country.

Productions.] Wild horses are numerous; they are very small but extremely active and well-made; the boars are peculiarly numerous and terrible. The *mufflon, musmon,* or wild sheep, abound in Sardinia; and maintain themselves by their extreme agility and speed against all the animals that live by rapine. They bear a stronger resemblance to the ram than any other animal; and have enormous horns, sometimes measuring, in their convolutions, above six feet. They are of the same species with the wild mountain-sheep discovered by the Americans on the rocky mountains near the sources of the Missouri, and denominated Bighorns. The following is a statement of the live stock in the island in 1825; horses, 48,700; oxen, 242,722; cows, 12,872; calves, 7,600; sheep, 802,930; goats, 245,900; kids, 299,481; swine, 183,454. Of Cerealia and Legumes the following is the annual average produce: wheat, 202,341 quarters Winchester measure; barley, 55,938 quarters, and legumes, 27,797. The grain exported as follows: corn, 500,000 bushels Winchester measure; barley, 250,000 do.; Indian corn, 12,000 do.; pulse, 125,000 do.; beans and pease, 250,000 do.; lentils, 1,250 do.; besides flour, biscuit, and maccaroni. The produce of goat milk and sheep milk cheese is about 1,656,000 lbs. Avoirdupois annually. One third of this is fine dried cheese from Iglesias; the rest is coarse and common, being steeped in brine, which renders it offensive to British taste.

Metals and minerals are numerous. Silver, copper, lead, bismuth, antimony, and loadstone are found in Sardinia. Of these lead abounds most, and is rich in silver, one vein producing 60 ounces to the quintal. The mineral productions are porphyry, in Limbarra; the basalt of Nurra, Gestovi, and Serri; the alabaster of Sarcidani, Tonara, and Bonaria; the marbles of Goccano and Monti Raso; the cornelian, sardonyx, and turquoise of Sulcis, where are masses of rock crystal and quartz, as pure as the *acentitum* of the ancients; at Pittenurri and Samaghcee are very fine amethysts and schorls; the chalcedonies, jaspers, irridescent quartz, and agates of Bosa, Alghero, and Isili, are exceedingly beautiful. But neither

sulphur, nor rock salt, nor lazulite have yet been found. Thermal springs and mineral waters are numerous.

Inhabitants.] The Sardinians are a motley tribe; their dress is a white or scarlet woollen vest; that of the women has nothing peculiar in it. The dialect is seemingly a mixture of Italian and Catalonian, but is now becoming obsolete as the modern Italian is beginning to prevail. The inhabitants used to enjoy great liberty till the Inquisition was established at Sassari. Assassination, as in Corsica, is very prevalent in Sardinia, and the peasantry are actually the rudest and most ignorant of any in Europe. Neither science nor literature of any kind have ever been allowed to domesticate here; and in the practice of agriculture, and the use and knowledge of agricultural instruments the peasantry are behind any in Europe. Mechanics of any kind seem to be almost wholly unknown.

Commerce.] The trade of this island is very limited, owing to the extreme poverty and ignorance of the people. Sardinia supplies the Piedmontese States with salt, as it formerly did Sweden entirely with that article. Salt is so abundant that if properly managed, 4,000,000 bushels might be annually manufactured; but this article is a royal monopoly. A great quantity of cheese is sent to Naples and Malta. The other exports are grain, leguminous vegetables, flour-biscuit, and maccaroni, which are sent to the Piedmontese States.

Religion.] The Roman Catholic religion exists here in all its rigour. There are 3 archbishoprics and 8 bishoprics in the island; besides 400 parochial clergy, with a host of inferior priests who perform the rural duties, the others residing in the cities. There are also 90 convents of monks, and 14 nunneries. The archbishoprics are Cagliari, Sassari, and Oristano.

Political Divisions and Government.] Sardinia is divided into 2 provinces, and 10 prefecturates. The provinces are Capo di Sassari, and Capo di Cagliari. The 10 prefecturates are Cagliari, Busachi, Iglesias, Isili, Lanusci, Nisoro, Sassari, Alghero, Cugliere, and Ozieri. These are subdivided into 32 districts, and 360 communes, all under a viceroy, who has a salary of 60,000 livres, and who is changed every three years, and by a chancellor who presides over the administrative tribunals.

Towns, &c.] Gagliari the capital, containing 25,887 inhabitants, lies at the mouth of the Mulargia in a large bay. It is well-built, and contains some splendid palaces, a cathedral, and 37 other churches; a university, and a library of 18,000 volumes. Its commerce is insignificant, although it is the principal commercial place in the island; but the harbour is good. Two large Lagunes in the neighbourhood furnish a considerable quantity of sea-salt for exportation. The environs are extremely fertile, and cotton and indigo are successfully cultivated here. Iglesia has 9,545 inhabitants.—Oristano, with 4,994 inhabitants, is surrounded by vineyards and olive-gardens. The valuable *Vernaccia* is grown here.—The ancient Neapolis is said to have occupied the site of the present Millis.—Sardara is famous for its three warm baths, the only baths in Sardinia.—Sassari, the capital of Capo di Sassari, contains 20,175 inhabitants. It is the seat of a university as bad as that of Cagliari.—Terranuove, a considerable town in the time of the Romans, is now only a miserable village. The towns and villages of Sardinia are chiefly situated on the coast, the interior of the country being infested with banditti.—San Antioco is an island on the S.W. coast, with 2,100 inhabitants; it is joined to the mainland by a stone-bridge built by the Romans.—St Pietro is another

island on the S.W. coast belonging to the duke of San Pietro, with 800 inhabitants, who are chiefly supported by coral fishing, and are said to be a colony from the island of Tabarka near Africa. Between this and Porto Scas is the most considerable tunny fishery, which the duke of S. Pietro annually lets for 25,000 scudi.—The Bucinarian islands are a cluster of 10 islands in the Straits of San Bonifacio. Madalena is the largest.—Tavolara, an island on the east coast, was famous in the time of the Romans for fine pearls.

CHAP. V.—THE LOMBARDO-VENETIAN KINGDOM.

Extent and Boundaries.] The Lombardo-Venetian States belonging to the Austrian monarchy have, according to Stein, 862.5 German, or 18,534 British square miles of surface. The Austrian dominions in Italy occupy the whole eastern quarter of Northern Italy, and are bounded by the Sardinian dominions and the canton of Tessino on the W.; on the N.W. by the Grisons; on the N. by the Tyrol and Carinthia; on the E. by Istria, Carniola, and the Adriatic; and the Po, from its confluence with the Tessino till it enters the Gulf of Venice forms the boundary on the S. Its greatest length, from Carniola on the E. to the canton of Tessino on the W. is 220 British miles; and its breadth from the Po to Mont Brenner, is 140 miles. It lies between the parallels of 9° and 14° E. long., and 45° and 47° of N. lat.

The Lombardo-Venetian States being composed of two entirely distinct Italian States, viz. Lombardy, and the republic of Venice, we must give a separate historical sketch of each of these principal parts.

History of Lombardy.] In the 6th century, when the Langobards conquered Italy, the whole of Upper Italy was called Lombardy. Charlemagne —as we have already mentioned—conquered the Langobardian king, Desiderius, in 774, and united the Lombardian crown with that of the Frankish empire. During the troubles which agitated the reign of the last kings of the Carlovingian dynasty, the Lombardian cities, at the head of which stood Milan, became very powerful; and, after a long struggle, these republics obtained their independence by the treaty of Constance in 1183. In Milan the influence of the Visconti family rose to such a height that Henry VII. in 1310, named Mattheus Visconti imperial Vicar; and in 1395, Giovanni Galeazzo Visconti was named duke of Milan by king Wenceslaus. Brescia, Bergamo, Padua, Vicenza, and several other towns were annexed to this dukedom. Under Galeazzo's sons however, Giovanni Maria, and Giovanni Phillippo, the power of the house of Visconti began to decline. Their sister married duke Louis of Orleans, and upon Philip Maria's death, the people of Milan having made choice of his natural daughter Blanca Maria, who was married to Francesco Sforza, for their duchess, France disputed the right to Milan with the house of Sforza. Francesco was succeeded by his son Galeazzo Maria in 1466; who was again succeeded by his son Giovanni Galeazzo in 1476. Giovanni was poisoned by his uncle Ludovico Moro in 1494. The French meanwhile made several attempts to recover their claims upon Milan; and succeeded in getting possession of it at different periods. However, Charles V. supported Francesco Sforza in the duchy, till his death in 1535, by garrisoning the fortresses with his troops. After Francesco's death Charles, in 1540, bestowed Milan, as a vacant fief of the empire, on his own son Philip, and it remained in the Spanish line of Habsburg till 1700. By the treaties

of Utrecht and Baden in 1713–14, Milan was annexed to the possessions of the house of Austria; and at the same time the duchy of Mantua also was united with Austria, and remained under the Austrian dominion till the battle of Lodi, when it was formed into the new Cisalpine republic, by Buonaparte, along with the duchy of Modena, the three papal Legations of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagno, and some parts of the former republic of Venice: viz. Bergamo, Cremona, and Brescia, and some districts of Switzerland. After several changes of constitution, the republic was displaced in 1799, in consequence of the victories of the Russians and Austrians in Upper Italy; but it was re-established in 1800, after the battle of Marengo, and recognised by the peace of Luneville in 1802. After the existence of a brief provisionary government, the senate of the new republic assembled at Lyons on the 28th of January 1801, and elected the first consul Buonaparte president of the Italian republic, as it was now called. On the 15th of March 1805, the republic was converted into the kingdom of Italy, of which Napoleon was proclaimed king. On the 7th of June Napoleon reappointed his step-son Eugene Beauharnois, viceroy of this kingdom, which was subsequently aggrandized after the peace of Presburg, by the addition of all the Venetian provinces which in the peace of Luneville had been ceded to Austria. In 1808 Napoleon added the provinces of Urbino, Ancona, Macerata, Camerino, and the little republic of Ragusa, to the kingdom of Italy; but after the peace of Vienna he again disjoined Dalmatia, Istria, and Ragusa, of which he formed the Illyrian provinces, and on the other hand united the southern part of Tyrol with the kingdom of Italy. During the struggle of 1813 till Napoleon's abdication, the viceroy maintained himself in Italy against the Austrians and the king of Naples, Joachim Murat. At the Congress of Vienna, Austria obtained possession of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom on the 7th of April 1815. The Sardinian part of Milan, the duchy of Modena, and the provinces which had been taken from the States of the Church were restored; but the Valteline, Bormio, and Chiavenna, were separated from Switzerland, and the whole divided into the two governments of Milan and Venice. The Italians bore the new yoke imposed upon them with abhorrence; and when the Neapolitan and Piedmontese revolutions broke out in 1821, a strong party of the most enlightened and distinguished persons in Lombardy agreed to act in concert with the revolutionists. Upon the failure of their schemes, many illustrious natives were forced into exile, and count Gonfalonieri was sentenced to imprisonment for life; which fate was also shared by the gifted tragical poet Pellico, and several others who are now languishing in the dungeons of Austria.

History of Venice.] The ancient republic of Venice was founded when the Westgoths and Huns under Attila, in 452, and the Langobards in 568 invaded the Roman empire, and particularly the upper part of Italy, which even in the time of the Romans was called *Venetia*. Many of the ancient inhabitants of this district retired to the islands in the lagunes of the Adriatic, especially that of Rialto, where they founded a small democratic republic governed by ten tribunes. In 697 they elected their first Doge, (Dux) Paolucci Anafesto. To the Doge was entrusted the executive power; the people retained the legislative power in their own hands; and the juridical authority was reposed in the tribunes and nobility. The first seat of the government was Traclea; it was afterwards removed to Malamocco; and in 737 to Rialto, where a populous city quickly rose out of the sea, and became the far-famed Venice. Great

commercial privileges were granted to the young republic by Rome and Constantinople; and her wealthy sons no longer satisfied with the possession of the islands of the lagunes, extended their conquests into Istria and Dalmatia. In the wars with the Arabs in the 9th century, the Venetians became expert sailors; and in 997 the towns of Dalmatia placed themselves under the protection of Venice. The wealth and power of the republic increased during the crusades, and Venice became the richest and most powerful city of Lombardy:

> " Her daughters had their dowers
> From spoils of nations, and the exhaustless East
> Pour'd in her lap all gems in sparkling showers."

But the aristocracy had already begun to encroach upon the rights of the people, and the Doge to extend his power, and several revolts took place. In 1172 the Doge Vitali Michieli was assassinated, and the constitution modified; the arbitrary power of the Doge was limited, and the supreme power given to a numerous assembly of the nobility. This aristocratical constitution gradually gained strength, and about this period the fine arts began to flourish in Venice. The commercial power of the republic reached its greatest height under the Doge Enrico Dandolo, who, in the crusade of 1202, undertaken by the Venetians and French, conquered Constantinople at the head of the Venetian fleet, and secured the possession of Candia, and several islands of the Archipelago and the Ionian sea. After the re-establishment of the Byzantine empire in 1261, the commercial road to India was transferred from Constantinople to Alexandria, and the Genoese gained great advantages over the Venetians. Still more important in its consequences was the decisive revolution by which the Doge Gradeniego, in 1297, consolidated an hereditary aristocracy, admitting only a fixed number of noble families—whose names were inscribed in the so called *golden book*—to a share in the government. It was at this period that the horrible council of the *ten*—as it was called—was established. In spite, however, of the abuses and tyrannies of a haughty and all-powerful aristocracy, the possessions of Venice on the continent were gradually enlarged, and her rival Genoa was humbled, after a struggle of 130 years for the supremacy in Lombardy. Vicenza, Verona, Bassano, Feltre, Belluno, and Padua in 1402, Friuli in 1421, Brescia, Bergamo, and Cremona in 1428, and the islands of Zante and Cephalonia in 1483, were incorporated with the Venetian territory; and in 1486, after the death of Jacob, the last king of Cyprus, his wife Catherine Cornaro, a Venetian lady, ceded this beautiful country to the republic. The power of Venice had now reached its acme, and henceforward began to decline. The Portuguese in 1498 discovered the way by sea to the East Indies, and the Venetians lost their commerce with that country by Alexandria; the Osmans had become masters of Constantinople, and gradually wrested from the Venetians all their possessions in the Archipelago, and in the Morea, and also Albania and Negroponte; and though the danger threatened the republic by the league of Cambray in 1508 was averted by skilful negotiations, its power had been greatly crippled by that war. The Osmans took Cyprus in 1571, and Candia in 1669. The Morea was reconquered in 1687, but was again given up in the peace of Passarowitz in 1718; the republic, however, preserved Corfu and Dalmatia.[6] From this period Venice ceased to

[6] The republic of Venice can boast of one advantage almost peculiar to itself, namely, that for several centuries the ablest pens have succeeded each other in relating its history. The first in this series of historians was Sabellicus, whose works entitled *Res Venetæ*,

take any part in the great affairs of Europe, and at last sunk entirely in the breaking out of the last war. By the peace of Campo Formio, the whole territory on one side of the Adige, with Dalmatia and Cattaro was given to Austria, and that on the other side incorporated with the Cisalpine republic, which in 1805 obtained also Austrian Venice and Dalmatia, but without the Ionian islands. In 1814 Venice and its territories were joined to the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom of which they form a government; Istria and some islands on the gulf of Quarnaro have been joined to the government of Trieste; and Dalmatia with its islands to the kingdom of Dalmatia. Thus

> " Venice lost and won,
> Her thirteen hundred years of freedom done,
> Sinks like a sea-weed into whence she rose!"

Physical Features, Soil, and Produce.] Lombardy is for the most part a level country; and is, without doubt, one of the finest and most fertile plains on the face of the earth; it seems to rise from the eye like the sea. The soil is entirely alluvial, composed of materials which have been deposited by water to an unknown depth. In the tract nearest to the mountains gravel of considerable size is mixed with the earth; but it becomes smaller and less in quantity as you recede from the high lands; so that the whole seems nearly composed of a black and very fertile mould. The high enclosing mountains afford an immense supply of water, which the great lakes at the foot of the Alps serve to economize, and to discharge with a regularity and steadiness highly favourable to the practice of irrigation; it is to this, no less than to the natural richness of its soil, that Lombardy is indebted for its amazing fertility. The richest part of this superlatively rich country is between Lodi and Cremona. But though the soil is extremely rich, and the irrigation the most perfect that can be conceived, the culture of corn yields place in a great degree to that of pasture. The grass is chiefly clover, which is cut four times a year, and serves for the cows which produce the cheese so well-known over all Europe by the name of Parmesan.[7] Rice in some places is cultivated with great success; but from the pernicious effect of so much stagnant water upon the health of the inhabitants, the further extension of rice-fields has been prohibited by the government. Field-labour is performed solely by oxen; and manure, contrary to the practice of all other places, applied solely to the grass. The fields are separated by rows of poplars. Towns and villages are numerous, the population immense, the atmosphere cloudless, and the beauty of the country in general all

in 43 books, were elegantly printed by Andreas Maurocenus in 1487. This excellent history was continued by Pietro Bembo, who was succeeded by Andrea Mauroceni. The next historian was Battesta Nani; and where he left off Michael Foscareni continued the history of Venice. After him Pietro Garzoni wrote the modern part.

[7] The cows are kept in the house, and in summer fed upon two crops of green clover; in winter on other two crops made into hay. They are never without doors except during a few weeks in the end of autumn, when they are allowed to eat up the last shoots of the season. To make one cheese requires the milk of 50 cows; and, as the farms are small—60 acres being thought a large one—the farmers form joint-stock companies, and the gross product is proportionally divided. The farms are divided into fields of two or three acres as the convenience of irrigation may require; and the soil is refreshed at least once in three years, by a top-dressing of dung. By the 15th year, notwithstanding this amelioration, umbelliferous plants, angelicas, and ranunculusses, take the place of the more useful grasses. The water is then set off, and the soil ploughed up and cropped for five years in the following order: 1*st*, hemp, followed by legumes; 2*d*, oats; 3*d*, wheat, followed by legumes; 4*th*, maize; 5*th*, wheat; the regular rotation thus extending to 20 years.

that fertility and cultivation can bestow. In the Valteline, much care is bestowed upon the culture of vines; and, from the circumstance of their vineyards lying E. and W., and thus enjoying the sun during the whole day, the wine is said to be peculiarly excellent. The management of bees also generally forms an important part in the rural economy of the Lombardese. Game, as may easily be supposed from the high cultivation we have described, is scarce. In the rivers and lakes fish are abundant. In regard to minerals, the northern part of the Milanese is, after Piedmont, the richest tract in Italy; but its mines have been much neglected.

Manufactures.] The industry of this country though it has much declined, is still considerable. The principal manufactures are silk, glass, and hardware; the glass-manufactories at Venice and Murano produce beautiful mirrors, and a great quantity of glass-beads are fabricated at Venice for exportation. Hardware and fire-arms are manufactured at Brescia. The woollen manufactures have much declined of late years. Jewellery and plate are very well-wrought in Milan and Venice; the other objects of industry are china, carpets, paper, artificial flowers, pomatums, preserved fruit, mosaics, musical instruments, perfumes, vermicello, maccaroni, and sausages. The commerce is tolerably animated, and the balance stands in favour of this country.

Population.] The population of the Austrian portion of Italy in 1820 was 4,142,082 according to Stein; and according to Hassel 4,104,813. By the census of 1825 it amounted to 4,237,301. The mass of the inhabitants are Italians; there are a few Greeks; 66,500 Germans; and 5,600 Jews.

Government.] There was a kind of mock constitution given in 1815 to the Lombardo-Venetian States; but they have no legislative power whatever, and the government *de facto* is quite arbitrary. The representation such as it is, consists in the landed proprietors, the nobility, and citizens who have at least a property of 4,000 scudi in value. The emperor has the right of excluding any one he thinks not worthy of his confidence, and the taxes are imposed by him. At the head of the government stands a viceroy. The kingdom is divided into the two governments of Milan and Venice, in each of which the administration is carried on by a governor and a government-council; but the whole is controlled by the authorities at Vienna, and nothing of any importance can be done without authority from that quarter. The administration of justice is arbitrary and wretched beyond description in all political affairs; and the censorship is extremely rigid.

Revenue.] The revenues of the ci-devant Venetian republic were computed at 8,240,000 ducats annually, or £1,716,666 sterling; but what the revenues are at present, since it fell under the jurisdiction of Austria, we have no means of ascertaining. The revenues of the duchy of Milan amount to £300,000; that of the other divisions we are unable to state.

Religion.] The established religion is the Roman Catholic; but in the Valteline, Chiavenna, and Bormio, most of the people of quality and fortune are Protestants of the Helvetic confession, and have churches in all the principal towns of these parts. The clergy are governed by a patriarch, 2 archbishops, and 18 bishops. The universities of the Austro-Italian States are those of Padua and Pavia.

I. THE GOVERNMENT OF MILAN.

This government contains 9 provinces, 127 districts, 2,293 parishes, 13 towns, 130 boroughs, 2,112 villages, and a population of nearly 2,300,000 souls, upon a superficial extent of 8,055 British square miles.

1*st. Province and City of Milan.*] The province of Milan contains 697.5 square miles. Its capital is one of those very ancient cities which, though it has not escaped the devastations and the ravages of all-consuming Time, has yet survived them, and preserved to modern times a vestige of its former glory. It was founded by the Insubrian Gauls about 584 B.C. and gradually rose into such importance as to become the capital of a considerable territory, which had strength sufficient to keep a Roman army in check for some time, and to require the united efforts of two Roman consuls to reduce it. It was called *Mediolanum* by its new masters; and flourished for several ages under the protecting shade of the mistress of the world. The stern Attila visited it in his fury, and butchered its inhabitants. It next fell a prey to the Goths, who, under Vitiges, delivered it up to flames and devastation. It suffered a similar fate from the Lombards who took and sacked it. Charlemagne in some measure restored it to its ancient splendour. But in 1162, it felt the vengeance of Frederick Barbarossa, who razed it to the ground; and sowed it with salt to avenge an affront its insolent citizens had put upon his empress. But Milan survived this tremendous visitation, and arose, like another phœnix out of its ashes, even by the assistance of that very prince whom it had affronted. At the close of the revolutionary war, in 1797, Milan became the capital of the Cisalpine republic. It is now the seat of the Austrian viceroy, and the capital of Austrian Italy. Milan is a great and splendid city, 11 miles in circumference, and though for the last fifty years its population has fluctuated greatly, yet it has been in a state of progressive increase since 1800: in 1805 it was estimated at 120,000, and at present at between 150,000 and 155,000. This city, though besieged forty times, and forty times taken and four times destroyed, still contains 11 collegiate churches, 200 other churches, 71 parishes, 30 monasteries, 8 colleges of regular clerks, 36 nunneries, 32 of the same kind for discipline, 120 schools for religious instruction in the Catholic faith, and many stately buildings both public and private. Amongst these, the cathedral claims the pre-eminence. Inferior only to St Peter's at Rome, it equals in length, and in breadth surpasses the cathedrals of Florence and St Paul's; but in interior elevation it yields to both. Its double aisles, its clustered pillars, its lofty arches, the splendour of its white marble walls, and its numberless niches filled with figures of the same materials give it a novel and singularly majestic appearance. The pillars are 90 feet high, and 8 in diameter. The length of the cathedral is 490 feet, its breadth 298, its interior elevation under the dome 258, and its exterior, that is to the summit of the tower, 400 feet. The cathedral is entirely built, paved, vaulted, and roofed, with the whitest and most resplendent marble. In a subterranean chapel, the body of Cardinal St Charles Borrmeo,[8] dressed

[8] This illustrious personage was the great benefactor of Milan; and—if we may believe what is delivered in history concerning him—appears to have been a pious, humble, charitable, and self-denied Christian, in some measure entitled to the name of saint. Born to a princely fortune, he consecrated himself and his substance to acts of religion and beneficence; he founded schools, hospitals, and churches, in every part of Italy; attended his flock during a destructive pestilence; erected a poor's house, and

in pontifical robes, with the crown and mitre, is deposited. The Ambrosian library was founded by the nephew of the beneficent archbishop. It contains 72,000 volumes, 15,000 manuscripts, and a gallery of pictures, paintings, statues, antiques, and medals, which were all carried off by their good friends and protectors the French, to be deposited under the care of the good people of Paris for the benefit of Europe! As the allies did not exactly harmonize with the French in their notions of the utility of Parisian guardianship, the above articles have since been restored to their rightful owners. The hospitals and charitable institutions of Milan are numerous. The Ospedale Maggiore, or great hospital, is an immense edifice capable of containing 1,200 patients, besides working convalescents. The great foundling-hospital receives about 4000 children. The lazzaretto, outside of the city, is likewise on a vast scale, but is opened only in case of an epidemic disease. In fine, Milan may be said to be the most elegant and stately city in Italy, being inferior to Naples in point of population only. It was the birth-place of Bentivoglio.

Towns.] Monza, a town of 5,617 inhabitants, was once the residence of the ancient Langobardian kings; here, in the church of St John the Baptist, the iron crown is preserved with which they were crowned, and which consists of a plain circle of gold within an iron ring, said to be forged of the nails of the cross on which Christ was crucified!—Marignano or Melignano, where Francis I. was gloriously conquered by the Swiss in 1515, belongs to this province.

2d. The Province of Pavia.] This province is about half the size of that of Milan. Its capital, of the same name, lies upon a beautiful hill on the Tessino, over which is a fine bridge with 7 marble arches. The university is said to have been founded by Charlemagne. Desiderius, the last king of the Langobards, was conquered here by Charlemagne in 774, and Francis I. of France in 1525 by Charles V.—Belgioso is a borough with a royal castle.—Binasco, a town of 4,270 inhabitants, conducts a considerable trade in Parmesan cheese.

3d. The Province of Lodi.] This province is a little larger than that of Pavia. Lodi, the capital, contains 14,900 inhabitants. It is situated on the Adda, over which a bridge is thrown of immense height. The Parmesan cheese made here of asses' milk is thought to be the best in the country. It was here that Buonaparte gained his splendid victory over the Austrians on the 10*th* of May 1796.—Casa Pusturlengo is a small but animated town.—Codogno, with 7,986 inhabitants, has a considerable

served the forsaken victims with his own hands. He bestowed annually 30,000 crowns upon the poor; and added to his alms during various seasons of distress, 200,000 crowns. He founded 10 colleges, 5 hospitals, and a great number of schools at Parma, Bologna, Milan, and in all the towns of the diocese. His food was plain; his dress coarse and common; and he showed an utter contempt of personal ease and indulgence, and of the income derived from his own estates, and the revenues of his archbishoprics. Many of his institutions still remain at Milan; and among others, Sunday schools which are extended to all parts of the diocese of Milan. "Every Sunday," says Eustace, "the vast area of the cathedral is filled with children, forming two grand divisions of boys and girls, ranged in opposite quarters, and these again subdivided into classes, according to their age and capacities, drawn up between the pillars, while two or more instructors attend each class, and direct their questions and explanations to every little individual without distinction. A clergyman attends each class, accompanied by several laymen for the boys, and matrons for the girls. The lay persons are said to be often of the first distinction, and tables for writing are placed in different recesses." It is no wonder if the memory of the pious archbishop be still venerated at Milan. Our delight in recording such acts of Christian beneficence is increased by the circumstance of its rarity, and from the consideration that he is one of the few lights who gilded the gloom of Papal ignorance.

trade in silk and Parmesan cheese. The Austrians were defeated here in 1746 by the Spanish, and in 1796 by the French.

4th. *The Province of Como.*] This province contains 1300 square miles, and 335,000 inhabitants. The capital is situated on the lake of Como, and conducts an animated commerce with Switzerland and Germany. It was the birth-place of the younger Pliny.

5th. *The Province of Cremona.*] This province contains 500 square miles, and 176,000 inhabitants. Its chief town, Cremona, is situated at the confluence of the Po and the Adda. It has 27,000 inhabitants. Among its fine public buildings is a splendid cathedral with a steeple 372 feet high. Cremona was celebrated for its manufacture of musical instruments, particularly violins; its present reputation is for a species of confiture called *tourron.*

6th. *The Province of Sondrio, or the Valteline.*] The Valteline contains upwards of 1,000 square miles, and 83,451 inhabitants. Its chief town is Sondrio, with 3,374 inhabitants. In the neighbourhood is the bath of Masino, which is much visited.—Chiavenna, with 2,800 inhabitants, conducts an animated commerce. It is situated in the fertile valley of the same name, which was formerly under the dominion of the Grisons. Oranges, almonds, pomegranates, and chesnuts are grown in great quantity here.—Bormio is a town with 5,300 inhabitants, situated in a valley of the same name on the boundaries of Tyrol. It is surrounded with steep mountains, which are covered with everlasting snow; but the climate of the valley is mild. A yearly fair and market are held here in October.

7th. *The Province of Bergamo.*] This province has 315,186 inhabitants on a surface of 1320 square miles.—Bergamo with 29,469 inhabitants, is a fortified town situated between the rivers Brembo and Serio. This place conducts an extensive commerce in silk with Germany, France, and England; and a great annual fair is held here in the Fiera, a vast edifice capable of containing 500 shops. It was the birth-place of the poet Bernardo Tasso, and of Tiraboschi.

8th. *The Province of Brescia.*] This province is a little larger than the Valteline, and supports nearly 324,000 inhabitants. The chief town Brescia, at the foot of a mountain between the Lago di Garza and the Lago di Iseo, contains 34,168 inhabitants. There is here a very fine cathedral built by the cardinal Quirini, and a fine arsenal. The industry of this place is chiefly directed to the manufacturing of fire-arms. Brescia might perhaps trace its origin to the Cenomani. All the world has heard of its heroic defence by the chevalier Bayard. In 1630 it was desolated by the plague, and in 1769 much injured by the explosion of a powder magazine.

9th. *The Province and City of Mantua.*] This province contains 940 square miles, with a population of 239,500 souls. It was formerly a duchy and governed by dukes of the House of Gonzaga. The last duke Charles IV. having taken part with the French in the Spanish Succession war, was put under the ban of the empire in 1708. He died without issue at Padua, and since that time Austria has kept possession of this country, which since 1785 has formed part of Austrian Lombardy. The important city of Mantua, the capital of this province, evidently owes its origin to the safety communicated by its position, and can boast of an antiquity almost equal to that of Rome. It shared the prosperity of that metropolis, and suffered under her disasters; and having experienced all the vicissitudes of the middle ages, at last, like other Italian cities,

emerged from them into liberty and independence. It stands on an island in the middle of a marsh formed by the Mincio, and is therefore, especially during the summer, very unhealthy. It is entered by bridges flanked by redoubts, and is one of the strongest places in Europe. It is built on a plain, and divided by a canal into two nearly equal parts. The streets are broad, regular, and well-paved; the houses are of stone and in general well-built. The public squares are spacious and elegant, particularly that of the Piazza di Virgilio, in the centre of which stands Virgil's monument,—a column of marble resting on a pedestal of the same material, with a bronze statue of the poet at the top. The place of the poet's birth was the small village of Andes, now called Pictola, in the neighbourhood. The principal public edifice is the cathedral, a beautiful building executed by the well-known architect and painter, Giulio Romano. The ducal palace is a most stately structure, containing 550 rooms; but it was stript of all its rich furniture by Colalto, the Imperial general, in 1630. Mantua was formerly famed for its silk-manufactures. It contained 50,000 inhabitants in the 17th century: the number of inhabitants, including the population of the suburbs, does not now exceed 25,000. In 1796–7, it stood a memorable siege by the French, and was at last only reduced by famine.—Ostiglia is a town of 3,141 inhabitants.—Castiglione, a town with nearly 5,000 inhabitants, was formerly the capital of a little principality belonging to the younger line of the House of Gonzaga.

II. THE GOVERNMENT OF VENICE.

This government contains 9,900 square miles, with a population, according to the census of 1825, of 1,957,238 souls. Amongst whom are 42,000 Germans in the *Sette Commune* and at Venice, 4,000 Greeks, 2,700 Jews, 500 Turks, and 400 Armenians. There are 29 towns, 87 boroughs, 2,460 villages, and 8 provinces in the government.

1*st*. *The Province and City of Venice.*] This province contains about 1000 square miles, with a population of 249,157 souls. We have already given an historical sketch of the republic of Venice. The city of Venice is situated in the dogado of the same name; and stands on 72 little islands, among the shallows which occur near the head of the Adriatic Gulf. The lake on which the city stands is about 5 miles distant from the main land, being a kind of small inner gulf separated from the larger one by some islands. These islands in a great measure break the force of the Adriatic storms before they reach the laguna or lake; yet, in high winds, the navigation of the lake is very dangerous to gondolas, and sometimes the gondoliers will not even trust themselves in the canals that intersect the city. Most of the houses have a door opening upon a canal, and another communicating with the street, by means of which and of the bridges a person may visit any part of the city, either by land or water. The streets and canals are generally narrow, but the great canal is very broad and meanders through the middle of the city. Venice contains 500 bridges; but the most of them are only single arches thrown over the canals. The Rialto consists of a single arch thrown over the narrowest part of the grand canal. It is of marble 90 feet in span, and 24 in height; but its beauty is impaired by two rows of booths or shops which divide its upper surface into three narrow streets. The prospect from the Rialto is lively and magnificent; but it is almost the only one in Venice, for, except the grand canal, and the canal Reges, all the other streets

are narrow. Some of them have no quays, and the water literally washes the houses. In rowing along these wretched canals, there is scarcely an agreeable object to cheer the view; and the stench which at certain seasons exhales from the waters is quite offensive; the houses are built on piles. Some parts of the city exhibit fine specimens of the architecture of Palladio. The chief buildings are the ancient ducal palace, the churches of St Mark and St Geminiano, the old and new procuratorships, which contain the museum, the public library, consisting of 150,000 volumes, and nine large apartments belonging to the procurators of St Mark. All these buildings are of marble. The patriarchal church of St Mark, though one of the richest and most expensive in the world, does not immediately attract the eye. Its architecture is of a mixed kind, mostly Gothic, yet many of the pillars are Grecian. The outside is incrusted with marble, and the inside ceiling and floor are of the finest marble; the whole is crowned with five domes. But all this labour and expense have been directed by a very moderate share of taste. The front, which looks to the palace, has five brazen gates with historical bass-relievos; over the principal gates are placed the four famous bronze horses of incomparable workmanship, said to have been executed by the famous Lysippus.[9] The principal entrance of the ducal palace, 'a vast and sumptuous pile,' is called the *Giant's Stair*, on account of two colossal statues of Mars and Neptune placed at the top. Under the portico, were the gaping mouths of two brazen lions. In an opening from the ducal palace to the sea, stood two granite pillars, lofty and massive, between which criminals were publicly executed. There is a communication between the ducal palaces and the State-prisons by a gloomy bridge,—*Il Ponte dei Sospiri* or 'The Bridge of Sighs.' The cells are made of massy marble, the architecture of the celebrated Sansovino. They are not only dark and black as ink, but being surrounded and confined with huge walls, the smallest breath of air can scarcely find circulation in them. They are about nine feet square on the floor, arched at the top, and between six and seven feet high in the highest part. There is to each cell a round hole of eight inches diameter, through which the prisoner's daily allowance of twelve ounces of bread and a pot of water is delivered. There is a small iron door to the cell. The furniture of each cell is a little straw, and a small tub; nothing else. The French revolution, which at first threatened the extinction of regal power, has been peculiarly fatal in its results to European commonwealths. It first revolutionized, then subverted them. Not a republic now survives the general wreck, but the cantons of Switzerland, and the insignificant state of St Marino; and these owed their preservation to other causes than the justice of that colossal power which equally subverted thrones and commonwealths. The population of Venice at the end of the 17th century, amounted to nearly 200,000 souls. Byron assures us it is now only one half that number, and that it diminishes daily. The census of 1825 returned it at 109,927 souls.

[9] They were given to Nero by Tiridates king of Armenia, to be put to the chariot of the Sun, for adorning his triumphal arch, after he conquered the warlike Parthians. The fiery spirit of their countenances, and their animated attitudes, are perfectly agreeable to their original fanciful destination. Nero placed them on the triumphal arch consecrated to him. They were removed to Constantinople by Theodosius, placed in the Hippodrome by Constantine, and remained there till the capture of Constantinople by the French and Venetians, in the beginning of the 13th century, when they were conveyed to Venice. Buonaparte caused them to be carried to Paris where they adorned the triumphal pillar in the Place Vendome; but after his overthrow they were restored to Venice.

The artisans form at Venice several corporations, and each corporation maintains a school, yet the Venetians are little more informed, generally speaking, than other Italians. As for the wealthy classes, Simond informs us they pass their time in the following mannner: people of fashion rise at 11 or 12 o'clock,—pay a few visits and idle away their time till three, when they dine; in summer they take an hour's siesta after dinner; they dine and go to the coffee-house or *casino* till nine,—then to the opera, which is another casino,—then to the coffee-house again for another hour or two,—and seldom go to bed in summer before sunrise. The *gondolieri* of Venice form a distinct class of the population. Venice was the birth-place of Algarotti, Gazzi, Goldoni, the Paoli, and Bembo. The emperor Francis I. has in this present year conferred upon Venice the privilege of a free-port. This liberal measure will in all probability arrest, for a time at least, the progress of its decay. Venice is 70 miles N.E. of Mantua, 115 N.E. of Florence, 140 E. of Milan, 226 N. of Rome, and 300 N. by W. of Naples. Long. 12° 10′ E. lat. 45° 26′ N. The great mole is situated about 17 miles S. of Venice. It was begun in 1751. Its object is to guard the lagune on its southern, and most assailable point, '*contra mare.*' It is kept in good order.

Towns.] Loreo is a town with 3,788 inhabitants, situated upon a canal which unites the Po and the Adige.—Maestro or Mestre on the Musone, has 6000 inhabitants.—Chioggia or Chiozza, upon an island of the same name, at the entrance of the Brenta in the lagunes, is built like Venice upon piles. It contains 24,000 inhabitants, and is the staple place for German merchandise and manufactures. It is considered one of the strongest points in the Venetian lagunes; and has witnessed many sharp conflicts betwixt the Genoese and Venetian fleets.—Dolo on the Brentono is a charming little town much visited by the wealthy Venetians.

2*d. The Province of Verona.*] This province contains 1,473 square miles, with 278,000 inhabitants. Its chief town is Verona with 60,000 inhabitants. It contains several very fine churches, chapels, public buildings, and palaces. But of all its public buildings by far the most remarkable is the Roman amphitheatre, the most entire monument of the kind existing. The arena situated in the centre is 220 feet in length by 130 in breadth. There are 145 ranges of seats of white marble, which will conveniently hold 22,000 spectators. There is a sarcophagus shown here as that of Juliet. Besides Catullus and the elder Pliny, Æmilius Marcus, Cornelius Nepos, Vitruvius, Hieronimus, Fracastor, the dramatic poet Maffei, Cagliari, and the painter Paolo Farinato called Paolo Veronese, were born at Verona.—Villa Franca with 5,349 inhabitants, is situated on the Tartaro.—Zevio on the Adige has 2,608 inhabitants.—Sanguinetto is a town of 2,541 inhabitants, in the midst of a swampy country.

3*d. The Province of Padua or Padova.*] This province containing nearly 900 square miles, and 290,500 inhabitants, is one of the finest and richest countries in Europe. The city of Padua has 47,000 inhabitants. Livy the historian was born here. Petrarca was one of the canons of the cathedral of Padua, and bequeathed to it part of his valuable library. The university was founded by the emperor Frederick II., and had in the middle ages between 3,000 and 4,000 students; there are now about 300 students and 45 professors. Padua was also the birth-place of the poet Cesarotti who died in 1808. This city was called *Patavium* by the ancients; Virgil attributes its foundation to Antenor: and, if Strabo may be credited, it could raise long before his time an army of 120,000 men.

—The town of Piazzola has some silk, iron, and worsted manufactures.—Este, on the Bachiglione, and the canal Frassena, is a town of 7,500 inhabitants, which gives its name to the family of Este, from whom the kings of England and dukes of Brunswick are descended.—Mirano, on an island formed by the river Musone, has some commerce.—Montagnano, on the canal Fiume, with 10,000 inhabitants, has some manufactures, and conducts a small trade in silk.

4th. The Province of Vicenza.] This province is nearly equal in extent and population to that of Padua. Its chief town, Vicenza, on the Bachiglione, Asieghello, and Recone, has 30,000 inhabitants. It contains upwards of 20 palaces built by the celebrated Palladio, who was born here. It was the birth-place of the poet J. G. Trissino, who died in 1550.—Tiene and Valdagno have some manufactures.—Camisano with 1,500 inhabitants, is an industrious borough.

5th. The Province of Polesine di Rovigo.] This small province has 135,635 inhabitants. It is intersected by numerous canals, which were called by the Romans *Fossæ Palistrinæ*, and which unite the Adige, the Tartara, and the Po. The chief town is Rovigo, with 7,000 inhabitants.—Ochiobello on the Po, has 3,050 inhabitants.—Landinara on the Adigetto, conducts some commerce.—Adria, on a peninsula formed by the river Tartaro, at some distance from the Adriatic, to which it gives its name, was formerly a celebrated and populous town; it has now only 8,900 inhabitants. It is traversed by the canal Bianco, which forms an island in the centre of the town. The unwholesome air nearly depopulated this place; but the pestiferous exhalations have been subdued by new canals. The ruins of the ancient *Adria* or *Azia*, founded by an Etruscan colony, are partly covered with water, and partly with earth deposited by the Po.—Badia is a town on the Adigetto with 5,000 inhabitants.

6th. The Province of Treviso.] This province has 232,750 inhabitants, on a surface of 750 square miles. The town of Treviso, at the confluence of the rivers Sile, Rotteniga, and Piavessella has a population of 15,000 souls. It is a fortified place, and possesses some manufactures and commerce. Treviso came in 1388 under the dominion of Venice, and in 1797 was given to Austria; in 1806 it was united to the kingdom of Italy, and in 1814 given back to Austria. The university which was founded here in 1318, has been united with that of Padua.—Valdobbiadene has some silk-spinning manufactures.—Oderzo, on the Monticano, is the ancient *Opitergium*, which, according to Strabo and Ptolemy, stood on the sea-shore, from which it is now above 20 miles distant.

7th. The Province of Belluno.] The superficial extent of this province is about 1500 square miles; but the population does not exceed 123,000 souls. The town of Belluno is situated on a hill at the junction of the Ardo and the Piave, and contains 8,000 inhabitants. On the 13th of May 1797 the French defeated the Austrians in the neighbourhood of this town.—At Agordo, on the Cordevola, are considerable copper, lead, sulphur and vitriol mines.—Feltre, a town on the Piave, with 5,200 inhabitants, is situated in the midst of a fertile country, abounding in wine, oil, and silk.—Cadore is the chief place of a district of the same name on the Piave, which is everywhere surrounded with high mountains, and has about 22,000 inhabitants. There are numerous iron-mines here. Cadore was the birth-place of the painter Tizian Vecellio.

8th. The Province of Friouli] Friouli is a corruption of the ancient *Julii.* This district was formerly divided into the Venetian and Austrian

part. Both were by the peace of Presburg incorporated with Italy in 1806, and now belong to Austria. The Venetian part has been joined to the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom; and the Austrian, consisting of the countries of Gorz and Gradisca, has been incorporated with the kingdom of Illyria. The inhabitants of Friouli speak a corrupted Italian, and in the mountains German also. The Venetian portion of this province contains 1200 square miles, and 250,000 inhabitants. The chief town is Udine on the canal La Roja, with 18,000 inhabitants.—Campo Formio celebrated by the peace between France and Austria which was concluded here on the 17th of October 1797, is a castle and suburb of Udine.—Tolmezzo, at the confluence of the Ruta and the Tagliamento has 2,943 inhabitants who manufacture considerable quantities of printed linen.—St Daniele, on a hill at a little distance from the Tagliamento, conducts some trade in corn.

CHAP. VI.—THE DUCHY OF PARMA.

Extent and Boundaries.] This country takes its name from its capital. With the exception of the little duchy of Guastalla—which lies between Modena, the Austrian province of Mantua, and the Po—Parma forms a connected State lying between the Po and the Appenines. It is bounded on the N. by the Lombardo-Venetian States where the Po forms the boundaries; on the E. by Modena; on the S. by Tuscany; and on the S.W. and W. by the Sardinian States. Its surface according to the best maps is 2,350 square miles. Balbi reckons its population at 440,000 souls.

History.] In the time of the Romans, Parma and Piacenza belonged to the Cisalpine Gauls, who subsequently freed themselves from the dominion of the German kings, and joined the league of the Lombardian cities. The families of Este and Visconti were for some time in possession of Parma. In 1420 Louis XII. of France united Milan, Parma, and Piacenza with his States; but he lost them again by the league of Cambray. Pope Julius II. in 1514, united the towns of Parma and Piacenza with the States of the Church; and Pope Paul III. in 1548, formed them into a duchy which he gave to his natural son, Pietro Aloysio Farnese. This donation was confirmed to Octavius Farnese by the emperor in 1556; and the duchy of Parma and Piacenza—with which also Guastalla was united—remained in the possession of the House of Farnese till 1731, when with duke Antonio the male line was extinguished. This duchy was then given to Don Carlos, son of Philip V. of Spain, and Elizabeth Farnese. When Carlos in 1736 mounted the throne of Naples and Sicily, Parma and Piacenza fell to the share of Austria, which again, in the peace of Aix la Chapelle, ceded them in 1748 to the younger Spanish Infant Don Philip, who was succeeded in 1765 by his son Ferdinand. His son, who married a Spanish princess, was in 1802 named king of Etruria; but at the death of Ferdinand, France, according to a secret treaty with Spain, took possession of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla, which were in 1805 incorporated with the empire. In the peace of 1814 these countries were given to the arch-duchess Maria Louisa, and to Napoleon's son as her successor. But Spain claimed them for the successors of the late king of Etruria, who had renounced his rights to Parma only under condition of obtaining Tuscany. Another treaty was therefore concluded at Paris in 1817, by which the succession to Parma after Maria Louisa's

death was guaranteed to the dowager-queen of Etruria, now duchess of Lucca, and her male descendants; and, in the event of their being extinguished, to Austria and Sardinia. To the son of Napoleon the title of duke of Reichstadt has been given with an income of 175,000 crowns.

Physical Features.] Parma forms part of the large valley of the Po; but only the northern part belongs to the rich Lombardian plain. In the S. run the Appenines. The principal rivers are the Po, the Taro, the Trebbia, the Parma, the Lardo, and the Tidone. None of these are navigable; neither are there any canals.

Climate.] The climate is temperate and very healthy; but the vegetation is not quite Italian. The olive grows only in the plain; and even there the snow sometimes remains several days in winter.

Soil and Productions.] The soil is a rich sandy loam affording fine pastures. There is more corn grown than supplies the home-consumption; rice is only grown in Guastalla. The finest-fruit trees and vines are planted in the fields. The wine is good, particularly a kind called Vino Santo. Silk is produced everywhere, but is not quite so good as in Piedmont. Parma possesses fine forests of beautiful oaks. The cattle are very fine and yield milk in abundance; honey and wax are also very good. Naphtha, which is obtained in great quantities here, is used for various purposes, as in lighting the streets. There is not much industry in this province. There are some silk-manufactories and iron-works, and several extensive distilleries of fine liquors. The balance of commerce stands in favour of this country.

Inhabitants.] The inhabitants belong to the same tribe as the Lombardians; their language has some similarity to the Piedmontese; but French is less generally spoken here than in Piedmont. The Roman catholic church flourishes here in great pomp. This little country has given birth to several celebrated men; but the progress of literature is now—as in all countries under the Austrian domination or influence,—checked by a rigid censorship and prohibitions. There is a university and an academy of science at Parma. The establishments for education are almost entirely in the hands of the clergy.

Government.] The government is absolute. The revenue amounts to about £192,000. There are 3,600 militia maintained, but Austria occupies the fortress of Piacenza. The duchy is divided into 4 districts.

1*st. The District of Parma.*] The chief town of this district is Parma on the river of the same name. It is the residence of the duchess, and contains 30,000 inhabitants. It is walled, but not tenable against a regular army. Among the buildings are several palaces; but the greatest ornament of the town is the opera-house, which is 344 feet long, 99 in breadth, and capable of containing about 9,000 people. The university in this city was founded in 1422; there is also a public library of 110,000 volumes. The church of St John is celebrated for its fine steeple, and its cupola painted by Corregio; the church of the Capuchins in this city is the burial-place of the family of Farnese. The celebrated printing-office of Bodoni, who died in 1813, exists in this city. The most beautiful editions of the classical Italian authors have been printed here, and it is said the establishment possesses founts of types for more than 200 languages. Parma was the birth-place of the great painters Lanfranco, and Parmegiano, of the poet Clementi Bondi, and the orientalist De Rossi. At Colorno on the Parma, the duchess has a magnificent castle.—At Fornovo, on the Bardone, Charles VIII. of France, defeated the Milanese in

1496. At Miano, a village in the neighbourhood of Fornovo, there is a very abundant spring of naphtha.

2d. The District of Borgo San Donino.] The chief town of this district, Borgo San Donino, has 5000 inhabitants. In the neighbourhood, the ancient Roman city *Julia Chrisopolis*, or *Fidentia*, is said to have been situated.—Near Fiorenzolo, on the Lardi, are the ruins of the Roman city *Velleja*.

3d. The District of Piacenza.] The town of Piacenza, on the right banks of the Po, is situated in a very rich and fertile plain. It is fortified and occupied by an Austrian garrison. The population is estimated by Balbi at 28,000 souls. Piacenza was the birth-place of the Cardinal Alberoni, and Pope Gregory X. The *Fossa Æmiliana* began at this town.—In the neighbourhood of Campremoldo di Sopra, on the Rinazzo, Hannibal is said to have fought the celebrated battle of the Trebia, 219 B. C.—The village of Salso on the Aveto has saline springs which annually furnish 300,000 cwt. of salt.

4th. The District of Guastalla.] This district is a small county of about 40 square miles, between Modena and Mantua; bounded on the N. by the Po, and on the W. by the Crostolo. It was united with Parma in 1748. The chief town is Guastalla on the Crostolo, in a marshy country intersected with canals. Balbi states its population at 5,500 souls, Lichtenstern says only 3,100. A great quantity of rice is grown in the neighbourhood.

CHAP. VII.—THE DUCHY OF MODENA.

Extent and Boundaries.] This country has its name from its capital. It lies, like Parma, on the right side of the Po; and is bounded on the N. by the Lombardo-Venetian States and Guastalla; on the E. by the States of the Church; on the S. E. and S.W. by Tuscany; on the S. by Lucca and Massa; and on the W. by Parma. The surface, according to the best maps, is 2,121 square miles. Lichtenstern and Balbi estimate it at 2,000 square miles.

History.] Modena was formerly a fief of the empire, and had dukes of the House of Este. The Margrave Albert Azo II. who died in 1097, bequeathed several of his Italian estates to his son Julio, who became the founder of the House of Modena and Este. During the troubles which agitated Italy in the midst of the 12th century, the members of the House of Este lost part of their possessions, but they were afterwards chosen Podestas in Ferrara and Modena, and in 1452 Borso of Este was made duke of Modena and Reggio by Frederick III. The direct line became extinct in 1598 with Alphonso II., who obtained liberty from the emperor Rodolph II. to bequeath Modena and Reggio to Cæsar the son of his uncle, by a marriage of the left-hand, as it is called; but Ferrara reverted as a vacant fief to pope Clement VIII. From this Cæsar are descended the dukes of Modena, who enlarged their territory by several new possessions. The last duke, Hercules III., married the heiress of Massa and Carrara, and had only one daughter, Beatrice, duchess of Este; who was married to the archduke Ferdinand of Austria, brother of the emperor Joseph II. In 1796 his lands were seized by the French. He was afterwards indemnified by the Breisgau at the peace of Luneville; but he ceded this country to his son-in-law, and died in 1803 at Treviso. His son-

in-law, archduke Ferdinand, lost the Breisgau by the peace of Presburg in 1805, and died in 1806. He was succeeded by his son Francis IV. who in 1814 was restored to the duchy of Modena. He is distinguished by his despotical disposition, and the cruelty with which in the last revolutionary movements in Italy he persecuted and punished all those who were suspected of liberalism. He has also recalled the Jesuits to his dominions; and has resumed the name of Este. His mother has been restored to the government of Massa and Carrara, which after her death are to be reunited with Modena. In the event of the House of Este becoming extinct, all its States are to revert to Austria.

Physical Features, Soil, and Climate.] This country lies in the valley of the Po, and is level towards the river; in the S. the Appenines rise to the height of the Alps, but not to the line of eternal snow. The soil in the plain is mostly clay covered with a thick strata of vegetable mould, and always moist; near the mountains it is stony and dry. All the rivers descend from the Appenines. The principal are the Lenza, the Secchia, and the Fanaro; but none are navigable, neither are the numerous canals by which the country is intersected, except that of Tassoni. The climate is like that of Parma. Corn is grown, and a good deal of wine is exported.

Inhabitants.] Stein in 1826 stated the population at 375,000, and Balbi at 350,000 souls. The inhabitants are of the same race as the Lombardians; their dialect is between the Milanese and that of Tuscany. The catholic religion is established; but Jews are tolerated. The establishments for education are wretched in the extreme, and all in the hands of priests and Jesuits. There is a university at Modena, with about 200 students, and a library of 60,000 volumes.

Government.] The government is arbitrary; the revenue is about £15,000; and the military force about 1,600 men. The duchy is divided into three districts.

1*st. The Duchy of Modena.*] The town of Modena, the residence of the duke, is situated in a very fertile and pleasant plain, and has 26,814 inhabitants. The ducal palace is a splendid building, with a gallery of pictures and antiquities, and a library of 80,000 volumes. In the cathedral the celebrated pitcher is preserved, which forms the subject of the *Secchia rapita*, a well-known burlesque poem by Tassoni. This city was the birth-place of the poets Alessandro Tassoni, and F. M. Molza, of Tiraboschi, and Andr. Lombardi.—Mirandola is a fortified town in a marshy country with 6,000 but according to Ricci only 2,353 inhabitants. It was the chief town of a duchy which was sold by its last possessor of the House of Pico in 1710 for 1,000,000 florins.

2*d. The Duchy of Reggio.*] The town of Reggio on the Crostolo is a handsome place with 18,000 inhabitants. There is a fine theatre here; a library of 30,000 volumes; and the celebrated museum of Spallanzani. Reggio was the birth-place of Ariosto, and the naturalist Spallanzani.—Correggio, in this district, was the birth-place of the great painter Ant. Allegri, surnamed Correggio.—Canossa is remarkable for the shameful penitence here imposed by Gregory VII. upon the emperor Henry IV., who stood barefooted under the window of the pope for several hours to obtain his absolution!

3*d. The District or Valley of Garfagnana.*] This valley lies to the S. of the Appenines, and is watered by the Serchio. It is a wild and inhospitable tract, inhabited by a few poor people who are chiefly supported

upon chesnuts. There are some iron-mines, and also stone and marble quarries wrought here.—The chief town is Castelnuovo di Garfagnana, a borough on the Serchio, with 3,000 inhabitants. The total population of the district is 10,600 souls.

CHAP. VIII.—THE DUCHY OF MASSA-CARRARA.

Boundaries and Extent.] This little country is bounded on the N. by Tuscany; on the N.E. by Modena; on the E. by Lucca; on the S. by the Mediterranean; and on the W. by Genoa. Its surface is only 94 square miles; and population 29,000.

History.] Massa-Carrara belonged to the House of Cibo Malespina, and the last heiress brought it as a dowry to her husband duke Hercules III. of Modena. Their daughter, Maria Beatrice d'Este, again married to a duke of Modena, is the present duchess, after whose death it reverts to her son the present duke of Modena.

Physical Features.] This duchy is a mountainous country, intersected by branches of the Appenines which run here into the sea; the scenery is lovely; olive groves alternating with fields surrounded by elm-trees, covered with luxurious vines, and all seen under that peculiar effect of light which only a southern sun can produce. The soil is stony, but fertile, and well-cultivated; and the vegetation becomes richer as we approach the mountains. The numerous streams which descend from the Appenines enliven the scenery, and form a rare feature in an Italian landscape. The marble-quarries are the principal source of wealth, and support a number of the inhabitants; the beautiful white marble of Carrara, with some oil and silk are the only articles of exportation.

Government.] The inhabitants are Italians; the dialect is that of Lucca; the religion is Roman catholic; the government is absolute; and the revenue about £21,000.

Towns and Marble Quarries.] Massa, on the Frigido, with 7,000, or according to Ricci only 6,551 inhabitants, is the capital. The situation of Massa is perfectly delicious, and the town is extremely well-built. It stands on a small elevation a mile or two from the sea-shore, and is protected by a castle built on a lofty rock. The mountains half environ it, and the sloping tract lying between the city and the shore is covered with the olive, the orange, the lemon, and many other fragrant and beautiful trees in the richest abundance. A church, with a handsome cupola, standing on a gentle eminence between the town and the sea, adds to the beauty of this view; and when you look towards the Mediterranean at sunset, you recognise the original of many of the sweetest landscapes of Claude Lorraine. The palace of the archduchess of Massa is a magnificent pile, in front of which is a large place surrounded by rows of orange-trees; and it is no less curious and interesting than it is really beautiful, whilst you are standing in this orange plantation, and breathing the balmy air of this genial climate, to see, through an opening in the mountains, the towering and snow-capped peak of a distant Appenine.—At the entrance of the city from Carrara, there is perhaps the most beautiful bridge in the world, over a considerable torrent: it is built entirely of white statuary marble, and has a single arch of the finest proportions. Having been finished only five years, it retains the virgin whiteness of the marble, which in this climate ages will scarcely impair. The town of

Carrara, famous for its marble-quarries, is four or five miles distant from Massa, separated from it by a high hill, and lying in a narrow valley hemmed round with lofty and rugged mountains, barren of verdure or trees, but yielding from their bowels a rich revenue to the inhabitants. It is an ill-built, unsightly town, containing a population of 6,000, and there are thirteen villages around it, about a mile apart from each other, containing an equal population, all engaged in working the quarries. There is an academy of sculpture in the town, containing 150 students. The quarry of statuary marble is in the side of the hill, at the elevation of several hundred feet above the town, and at the distance of about a mile and a half. The surrounding mountains are so high as to be covered in spring with snow, though they are clear in the summer. The quarry is not very deep or extensive, the parts from which the marble has been cleared being filled up as the workmen proceed. The marble lies in strata at an inclination of about 60° from the horizon. It is snowy white, and of a closer texture than almost any other marble, owing to which it receives a finer surface, and is more durable. The beds are from a foot and a half to three feet in thickness, alternating with beds from two to three inches thick, containing talc, asbestos, steatite, and crystals of sulphuret of iron. The statuary marble is not found higher than a certain elevation in the hills, and quarries of an inferior kind are seen several hundred feet above them. The beds of the statuary marble are thinner than of the other kinds, being scarcely ever above four feet in thickness, the dimensions of the blocks are of course limited, and the largest mass ever raised was from four to five hundred cubic feet. Two-thirds of all the marble got at Carrara is sent to England; Rome and France take comparatively little. Many of the blocks are sawn into slabs by water-mills, the machinery of which is not bad; by a number of parallel saws, a large block is cut at one operation into ten or a dozen slabs. There are no less than 150 quarries of marble in the mountains of Carrara, and they are all the property of private individuals. The town is becoming rich from its large commerce in marble, and the workmen earn high wages.

CHAP. IX.—THE DUCHY OF LUCCA.

The small State of Lucca is bounded on the N. by Modena and Tuscany; on the E. and S. by Tuscany; on the W. by the Mediterranean; and on the N. W. by Massa. The surface, according to the best maps, is 438.5 square miles. Balbi calculates it at 416 English square miles. The districts of Minuciano, Albiano, and Renzano lie separated on the N.W. between Tuscany and Modena; the district of Castiglione is connected with the rest only by a small neck of land. The population was 143,000 souls in 1826.

History.] Lucca was a Roman colony, and shared the fate of the rest of central Italy, in being successively conquered by the Goths, Langobards, and Franks, and afterwards by the German kings. In the beginning of the 13th century, the warlike Uguccione della Faggiola ruled over Lucca. In 1327 Castruccio Castracani was named duke of Lucca by the emperor Louis the Bavarian; but this dignity became extinct at his death, and Lucca was successively ruled by the Genoese Spinola, king John of Bohemia, Pietro Bossi from Parma, Martino Scaliger of Verona,

and the town of Florence. Lucca at last bought its freedom from the emperor Charles IV. in 1370 for 100,000 florins, and maintained it till very recent times. The government was aristocratic, and the first magistrate bore the title of *Gonfaloniere*, and was only elected for two months. In 1799 Lucca opened its gates to the French, and the aristocratic constitution was changed into a democratic. In 1805 Napoleon gave Lucca as a duchy to his sister Elisa and her husband Pascal de Bacciochi. By the treaty of Vienna this ancient republic was converted into a duchy, and the sovereignty conferred on the Infanta Maria of Spain, widow of the late duke of Parma and king of Etruria: the succession being to descend to her son, and to the heirs of the family, and in case of default of male issue, to revert to the grand duke of Tuscany.

Physical Features and Productions.] The Appenines cover the N. of this little country, and stretch their vanguards down to the sea and the Monte Giuliano. The principal river is the Serchio, which receives some smaller ones, and is of great utility to the country in supplying numerous canals for irrigation. The baths at Lucca are celebrated. The climate is severe in the N., and warm but healthy in the centre. In the S. and W., where there are stagnant waters, it is damp and unhealthy. The attempts to drain the swamps here have not fully succeeded. The mean temperature is about 11° R.; the heat in summer is about 26° R., and in winter the thermometer seldom falls to 0°. The land is in excellent cultivation, and seems a garden. All the fields are divided by elms, sycamores, and mulberry-trees, between which the vine is trained in graceful festoons along successive avenues, as was in use amongst the Romans. Along the coast are excellent pastures. The mountains are covered to their very summits with vines, olives, and chesnuts; even the Appenines are not barren here, but are clothed with chesnuts, pines, and larches. The province produces neither corn nor cattle sufficient for its own consumption; oil and silk are the staple wares. The oil is reckoned the best in Europe, and brings an annual revenue to the State of 200,000 scudi. There are about 30,000 pounds weight of silk annually produced here. There are no manufactures except in the capital, which has always been celebrated for its industry.

Inhabitants.] The inhabitants are of Italian descent; their dialect is like that of Tuscany, to the inhabitants of which they also bear a similarity in character, manners, and customs. They are catholics in religion.

Government.] There is a kind of constitution here; and a senate, which exercises the legislative power. The duchess is obliged to convene the senate for at least one month in the year. The revenue is estimated at £78,500. The military force is 1400 men, and there is besides a militia force. Lucca is divided into 3 districts, and contains one city, and 290 boroughs and villages.

The chief town is Lucca, on the canal of Ozzorti, which comes from the Serchio. It is the residence of the duke and of the archbishop. It lies in a small and fruitful plain, surrounded by hills covered with woods, vines, and villas. Its fortifications have the appearance of strength, but would not be serviceable in war: the ramparts are planted with rows of fine trees, betwixt which is an elevated road round the whole city, forming a very fine promenade and drive for the inhabitants. The Lucchese have great need of such a place for air and exercise, as their streets are very narrow, and this is the more singular, as the neighbouring city of Pisa is remarkable for the unusual width of its streets The extreme antiquity

of Lucca, which maintained its independence even in the height of Roman power, may account for the inconvenient construction of the city. The cathedral is in the exterior a good deal like that of Pisa, but the interior is of a more chaste and beautiful Gothic style. The ancient palace is a large and regular pile, without much ornament. The city of Lucca contains about 22,000 inhabitants. The ancient motto of the republic, when governed by its *gonfaloniere* and nobles, was *Libertas;* but the word, as well as the reality, is now erased in the public places of the city, and is only to be found on its old coins. The people are so industrious, that the city has obtained the name of *Lucca l'Industriosa,* and they are consequently comfortable and wealthy. Its churches contain some of the most splendid paintings of the celebrated Florentine monk, Fra. Bartolomeo, whose works are characterised by extreme brilliancy and softness. There is a university here, which never was very flourishing, but has a good library. The Academy of Lucca originated in 1584; it was put upon an improved footing in 1805. The town is surrounded by very pretty villas. Lucca was the birth-place of the painters Coli and Sancassiani.—Viareggio is a borough with 2,500 inhabitants. It has a harbour, but is situated in a marshy and unhealthy country.—Borgo a Mozzano is a borough on the Serchio, with 1,500 inhabitants.—Bagno alla Villa, a village on the Lima, is celebrated for its warm baths, which are commonly called those of Lucca.—Bagna Calde is a village above Bagno alla Villa, on the Lima, where are some mineral springs.

CHAP. X.—THE GRAND DUCHY OF TUSCANY.

Boundaries and Extent.] Tuscany is bounded on the N.W. by Lucca and Modena; on the N.E. the E. and S.E. by the Papal dominions; and on the S.W. and W. by the Mediterranean, which is here called the Tuscan or Tyrrhenian Sea. Without these boundaries there lies within the circumference of Lucca the *Vicariato di Pietra Santa,* belonging to Tuscany; and between Modena, Parma, Genoa, Massa, and Lucca, what is called the *Lunigiana* of Tuscany. Besides those insulated districts the islands of Elba, Pianosa, Palmajola, Gorgona, Giglio, Montechristo, Melora, La Formiche, and Gianuti belong to this country. Liechtenstern calculates the surface of the Tuscan dominions at 8,415 square miles. Mayer's maps exhibit it at 8,460, and Balbi states it at 8,430 English square miles.

History.] Tuscany is the country anciently called *Etruria*; its inhabitants were the *Etrusci* whose antiquity is such that it is lost in the obscurity of ages. Some have taken them for the aborigines or primeval inhabitants of the country; others maintain that they were of Egyptian descent. Many represent them as of Lydian origin; a still greater number will have them to have been the ancient *Pelasgi;* and of late they have been supposed to be the offspring of the Phœnicians or Canaanites. Nothing certain has yet resulted from all these learned investigations. We however know that they occupied a territory far more extensive than modern Tuscany, to which they were gradually circumscribed by the Gauls, the Samnites, and the Umbrians. They equalled the Egyptians in the solidity, and surpassed them in the beauty of their edifices,—excelled them in the arts, and rivalled them in the luxuries of life,—while the Greeks were still barbarians, and Rome was yet without a name; and

though obliged in after times to bend under the Roman power, they could boast that they communicated to their conquering mistress the skill that erected her temples, the ceremonies that graced her religion, the robes that invested her magistrates, the pomp that accompanied her triumphs, and even the military music that animated her legions.

Tuscany or Etruria was a confederacy of twelve republics, each governed by a chief called *Lucomon.* These chiefs,—who were priests at the same time—used to assemble near the temple of Volturna to consult on the affairs of their country. Porsenna, well-known in Roman history, was one of these Lucomons. After the downfall of the Roman empire this country came consecutively into the power of the West-Goths, Longobards, Byzantinians, and Franks, and was named Tuscany. From the time of Charlemagne it had its own margraves who soon succeeded in becoming independent. That great revolution in the Italian cities which infused new life into the whole of Upper Italy, and effected a rapid transformation on the face of society there, was more slowly developed in Tuscany where the power of the margraves was more firmly established. Pisa was the first town which began to rise, and it was not till its power was destroyed by internal dissensions that Florence became powerful. Sienna about the middle of the 15th century was formed into a flourishing republic. These three cities divided the power among themselves; but Florence soon became preponderant, and the House of Medicis distinguished by its great influence. The Medicean family, by their wealth, abilities, influence, and patriotism, at length acquired the sovereignty of Pisa in 1407; and in 1538, Florence 'with the Tuscan fields and hills' was erected into a duchy by the emperor Charles V. in favour of Alexander de Medicis. He was of the elder branch of the Medecian family; which derived its descent from Philip de Medicis, who lived in the 13th century, and was a chief opposer of the Gibbeline faction. The Medici were noted for their taste in literature, poetry, and the fine arts; and learning and genius flourished under their fostering care. Alexander however was rather a powerful chief magistrate, than an independent sovereign, for all decrees and public acts bore the inscription: *Dux et conciliarii reipublicæ Florentinæ.* This appearance of liberty however ended with Cosmo I., who, in 1557, received Sienna from Philip II. of Spain; and in 1569 the title of grand-duke, which was confirmed by Maximilian II. in 1575. In 1737, the family of Medicis became extinct; and Francis duke of Lorrain obtained the grand duchy as a compensation for the loss of his hereditary dominions, which had been seized by France, and given to Stanislaus, father-in-law of Louis XV. By the marriage of Francis with Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary, and daughter of Charles VI. he became emperor of Germany, and Tuscany in 1745 became an appanage of the Austrian family. Francis was succeeded in the grand-duchy by his second son Leopold, who became emperor in 1790 upon the decease of his brother Joseph. In 1792 Ferdinand, second son of Leopold, was appointed grand duke of Tuscany. He was driven out of his territories in 1799 by the French; who erected them into a republic under the name of the Etruscan commonwealth; its capricious masters afterwards made a kingdom of it under the name of Etruria, and finally incorporated it with France as an integral part of the French empire, Napoleon's sister the duchess of Lucca being named grand-duchess of Tuscany. In 1814, Ferdinand was restored to his duchy, which now comprehends the imperial fiefs, the principality of Piombino, and the whole island of Elba. Ferdi-

nand died in 1824, and was succeeded by his son Leopold II. The annual revenue is £708,500 sterling. Tuscany has been styled the oasis of Italy.

Physical Features.] Tuscany embraces three distinct regions. In the bottom of a beautiful valley the famous Arno forms a basin of which Florence is the centre, and which on the S. stretches to Crotona, and on the E. to Pisa. This basin terminates near the sea in a dead level country, resembling land which has been abandoned by the sea. The right banks of the Arno are surrounded by the high chain of the Appenines; and the left, bounded by the sea and the Papal dominions, present the appearance of a desert, barren, flat country, where the soil is sterile, the air unhealthy, and the hills covered with ruins of all ages. The region of the Appenines covers one-third of the surface of Tuscany; the rich valley of the Arno only one-sixth, and the Maremna of Sienna, the remaining three-sixths.

Soil.] The soil in the delightful valley of the Arno is rich and well-cultivated: that on the Appenines is stony. The soil near the coast is low, sandy, and at some parts swampy. The Maremna consists of a white clay, impregnated with sulphur; every where in this desolate country sulphureous springs and mephited flames are seen issuing from the soil.

Rivers and Lakes.] The principal river is the Arno which is navigable for barges from Florence to the sea, and receives a great number of small rivers, as the Chiana, the Sieve, and the Evola. The Arno is of great use to the country by feeding upwards of 1000 small canals. The rivers were formerly very destructive, but are now all well-built up with dykes which protect the adjacent lands. The Ombrone is the largest river next to the Arno; but it is not navigable; it flows through the Maremna. The Tiber has its source here in the Appenines. The canal of San Giovanni, and the Fossa di Navicelli are navigable; all the other numerous canals are merely for irrigation. The largest lake is the Lago di Castiglione di Piscaja, about 25 miles in circumference; it stands in communication with the sea by a canal.

Climate.] The climate is as much diversified as the country itself. The numerous mountains and the sea-breezes diminish the heat; though it sometimes becomes exceedingly oppressive. The mean temperature at Florence is 10° of R., and at Leghorn 11°. On the high mountains the snow remains for weeks in winter, and the nights are very cold even in August. In the valleys the winter is so mild that the snow scarcely remains for one day. Rain is not frequent; but very copious dew refreshes the plants. In summer the *sirocco* and *libecchio* are very oppressive, and exert a pernicious influence on the vegetation. On the Appenines and in the delightful valley of the Arno, the climate is every where healthy; in the swamps near Pisa fevers and agues are common; the sulphureous soil of the Maremna sends forth pestilential exhalations, and it is only in winter that the herdsmen dare to visit these desolate regions long since forsaken by their inhabitants. The unwholesome air is not produced here by stagnant waters as in Pisa, but by the chemical and volcanic qualities of the soil.

Productions.] The valley of the Arno is in excellent cultivation, and all divided into very small farms, separated by rows of trees or small canals, In no country of Europe perhaps is the soil so minutely subdivided as here. In the Maremna the vegetation is so plentiful in summer that the pastures furnish supply for additional flocks of 400,000 sheep, 30,000

horses, and a great number of cattle and goats. The corn raised supplies the consumption of the numerous population only in ordinary years. In bad years supplies must be got from Leghorn. Straw has great value in Tuscany, the finest—that of the Grand Marzolano, a species of wheat—being used for making bonnets; however, it is said that two acres would furnish straw enough for all the bonnets made in Tuscany. One of the most important productions is chesnuts, which on the Appenines and the hills of the Maremna are used for bread; the produce of chesnuts is calculated at 800,000 bushels per annum. Wine is made in considerable quantity; the best qualities are found at Monte Pulciano, Chianti, and Pomino; most of it is consumed in the country. Oil is an object of great importance; the exportation being very great, and the home-consumption amounting to about 11,050,000 lbs. per annum. Wood is abundant. Horses are numerous, but small and feeble. There are several studs; one of the most famous is at San Rossore, where also a herd of about 200 camels has been kept from the time of the crusades. It is here that the idle fellows who go about Europe exhibiting camels as a show generally purchase these poor animals. They get them for 6 or 7 louis d'ors the head. At San Rossore there is also a herd of 1,800 wild cows, and a flock of merinoes. The asses of Tuscany are thought the finest and strongest in Europe. Goats are numerous, and good cheese is prepared from their milk. The iron-mines of the isle of Elba are very extensive. Sulphur is exported in great quantities, and saltpetre, alum, and vitriol. The Tuscan marble is much valued.

Industry and Trade.] Tuscany is one of the most industrious countries in Italy, though here too the ancient spirit has greatly declined. In the valley of the Arno, in the neighbourhood of Florence, the manufacture of straw-hats is carried on by women, and annually produces 3,000,000 of liri. Silk manufactures are still a principal branch of industry in the Florentine cities, and there are also some manufactures of linen, broad cloth, coral, soap, perfumeries, liquors, leather, paper, china, marble, alabaster, and mosaics. Leghorn has been declared a free port, and maintains a considerable commerce with the East. The balance of commerce stands in favour of this country, which also derives considerable advantages from the numerous strangers who are constantly present in its fine capital, or visiting the baths at Pisa.

Inhabitants.] Balbi estimated the population of this country, in 1826, at 1,275,000 souls. The Tuscans are of Etrurian descent, but are now quite amalgamated with the Italians. The purest Italian is spoken here; but the pronunciation is guttural and harsh. There are about 15,000 Jews in Tuscany, and a good many French, English, German, and even Turkish settlers, particularly in Leghorn. Religious toleration exists. The clergy were formerly very numerous, but Leopold abolished most of the convents, and the French secularised the rest; and there are only those orders existing now which are devoted to the care of the sick, and the objects of education. There are 3 archbishops.

Literature.] There was once a time when the arts and sciences rendered Florence 'the brightest star of star-bright Italy;' but that time is gone,—the Medici, Dante, Michael Angelo, and Leonardo da Vinci are no more; nevertheless Florence, on account of her glorious monuments of art, and the remembrances of former times, is still one of the most interesting places in Europe. There are three universities at Florence, Pisa, and Sienna; that of Pisa has the most reputation. The elementary schools are mostly in the hands of the clergy: however, much more is done here

for popular education than in the rest of Italy; and the whole system is on a much more liberal footing. There are academies and literary societies in all the important towns: the most remarkable are the Academia delle belle arti, and the Academia Fiorentina, which latter consists of the united societies Del Cimento, Della Crusca, and Del Disegno.

Government.] The government is an absolute monarchy. The state of justice here, as in every country where the sovereign's will is law, is extremely low. There are courts of law, and there is a Florentine code,—but it avails little when inimical to the views of the duke; and into the former it is impossible to procure admission, as all the proceedings are private, and the accused, with the horrible spirit of the inquisition, are not permitted to see their accusers. The revenue is about £708,500 There are about 4,000 regular troops, besides militia. The few frigates and vessels which formerly protected the coast were lost during the French domination, and the mercantile vessels have now no other protection than that of the Austrian flag. Tuscany is divided into 3 provinces, containing 36 towns, 135 boroughs, and 2,570 parishes.

1*st. The Province of Florence.*] The *Dominio Fiorentino* forms the N.E. part of the country, comprehending the valley of the Arno, the greatest part of the region of the Appenines, the Vicariate of Pietra Santa, and the Lunigiana of Tuscany. Its surface is 3,645 square miles, and its population is about 643,385 souls.

City of Florence.] The city of Firenze or Florence, now the capital of the grand duchy, was anciently a Roman colony of Cæsar's veterans, and rose gradually during the middle ages, till in the 14th century it had a population of 400,000 inhabitants. It still contains 80,000 souls, and 10,000 houses. The environs are beautiful and rich, with 6,000 country-houses. Florence is six miles in compass, and, next to Rome, the most beautiful city in Italy; the buildings are all magnificent, and the streets well-paved and kept remarkably clean. The Arno divides it into two unequal parts. It would require more room than we can spare to go into detail concerning the curiosities, antiquities, and paintings of Florence. Almost every one has heard of the ducal palace, the large and splendid cathedral, the church of Santa Croce, the Piazza del Granduca, and the Medicean gallery. Besides the library belonging to the university, there are the Laurenziana or Medicean library with 120,000 volumes, and many valuable manuscripts; the Magliabecchiana with 90,000 volumes, among which are 3,000 of the earliest specimens of the typographical art, and 8,000 manuscripts; and the Marucelliana with 50,000 volumes, and a select collection of engravings. There are many splendid private galleries and libraries. A protestant chapel was recently consecrated at Florence. No Englishman must forget to pay a visit to the English burying ground. It is a little way out of the town, and contains many elegant tombs, over which the cypress and willow throw their branches. Two will be viewed with much interest,—Smollett's and Horner's. Florence was formerly one of the first manufacturing towns in Italy, and still possesses some important manufactures, particularly in silk. The commerce with the interior of the country is animated. Florence was the birth-place of many distinguished men, as the great poet Dante, Machiavelli, Filicaja, Guicciardini, Michael Angelo, Buonarotti, Galileo, the composer Lulli, and Amerigo Vespuzzi. "The Florentines," says a late native author, "are those among the Italians who most resemble their ancestors. We have in their language the same attic salt which Boccacio diffused over his writings,—the

same urbanity and taste even among the vulgar. The upper ranks of society at Florence are as refined as those of any other European capital; the desire of pleasing—what the French style *prevenance*—is one of their characteristics. The nobles have ceased to be idle and haughty,—they now court the good opinion of their countrymen by forwarding and encouraging useful and liberal undertakings. The names of Ridolfi, Ginosi, Pucci, Capponi, Inghirami, and of other representatives of patrician families, are distinguished in the literary and scientific world. The activity of mind, the spirit of the old Florentine republicans, are not extinguished in their posterity, but have taken a more pacific direction towards agricultural industry, commercial speculations, and studies of every sort."

Towns.] At Monte Pulciano very good wine is grown.—Cortona, a town of 4,000 inhabitants, has some manufactures and marble-quarries. It was the birth-place of the painter Pietro da Artona.—Arezzo, a town of 7,000 inhabitants, has some manufactures. It was the birth-place of the painter Vasani, the witty Aretino, and of Guido of Arezzo, the inventor of the musical scale.—Pietra Mala is situated at the foot of the Raticosa, which some naturalists consider a volcano on account of the fire it throws out, whilst others believe that the fire is produced by burning naphtha.—Prato, upon the Bisenzio has 10,000 inhabitants. It has some manufactures in silk, worsted, and linen; it was the birth-place of the poet Casti.—Pistoja, near the Ombrone, has several fine churches and other buildings. In the neighbourhood the brilliant white crystals are found which are called *Diamanti di Pistoja*. It was the birth-place of the poets Ape and Fortinguerra, of the celebrated lawyer Cino Gingiboldi, and the improvisatrice Corilla.—At Montecutini are the celebrated mineral springs called *Aqua del Pettuccio*.—Certaldo on the Elsa, was the birth-place of Boccacio.—At S. Gemignano the best wines of Tuscany are manufactured.

2*d. The Province and City of Pisa.*] The *Territorio Pisano* in the N.W. part of the grand duchy, forms only a small part of the valley of the Arno; but extends along the whole sea-coast to the vanguards of the Appenines which separate it from the Maremna. The island of Elba and the intermediate State of Piombino belong to this province. The chief town is Pisa on the Arno, in a marshy unhealthy country, surrounded by the swamps of the Serchio, and the Padule del Lupo, and Padule di Stagno. It contains 6,000 houses, and only about 20,000 inhabitants. Pisa was a free and maritime State during three centuries. Her numerous fleets rode triumphant on the Mediterranean; Corsica, Sardinia, the African Saracens, and the infidel sovereign of Tunis bowed beneath her power, and captive monarchs appeared before her senate. The Franks in Palestine and in Egypt owed their safety to her naval prowess; and Naples and Palermo beheld her flag unfurled on their towers. Her alliance was courted, and her effective services acknowledged, by pontiffs and emperors; and Pisa, of Grecian origin, rivalled the fame of her Peloponnesian parent. In the days of her glory, 150,000 active citizens filled her vast precincts with industry, and spread fertility and wealth over her whole territory. Such was her state during the 11th, 12th, and 13th centuries; after which the usurpation of domestic tyrants—whose overgrown opulence enabled them to assume the government—and the victories of her Genoese rivals, French politics and interference, and the intrigues of the Medici subverted her power. The university of Pisa was founded in 1309, and has a library of 60,000 volumes. The air is unwholesome only during certain months of the year; at other seasons it

is almost always pure, and the sky without a cloud. Water is brought into the city by an aqueduct from Asciano. The celebrated baths, which attract so many foreigners, are situated at a little distance from the town, near Mount Giuliano; they are 12 in number, and the heat is from 24° to 32° R. Pisa was the birth-place of several distinguished men, particularly of the great Galileo Galilei, and the physician Vacca.

City of Leghorn.] Leghorn or Livorno, the ancient *Liburnum*, stands on the sea-coast, opposite the rocky island of Meloria, and is next to Marseilles the most important commercial town on the Mediterranean. This city never attained any consideration, but remained a petty village immersed in sea-weeds and swamps, until Ferdinand duke of Tuscany turned his attention to its port in the 17th century, and built a new town there with large and straight streets,—drained the swamp by a canal of 14 miles, extending to Pisa, which carries boats of great burden,—and endowed it with such privileges as induced merchants from every quarter to settle here. It has now become a great city, with a good harbour, and 66,000 inhabitants of whom 20,000 are Jews. It is well-fortified, and bears every mark of commercial prosperity. It lies 46 miles W. of Florence, and 145 N.W. of Rome. Long. 10° 28′ E. Lat. 43° 33′ N.

Towns.] Volterra has 6,000 inhabitants. There are very celebrated salt-springs here, which issue out of the mountain of Scornello, and produce 51,102 cwts. of salt annually. In the neighbourhood beautiful marble, alabaster, freestone, and coals are found. The alabaster is wrought upon the spot into vases and figures. The painter Daniel di Volterra was born here.—Montecervoli is remarkable for its numerous hot springs.

Island of Elba.] The island of Elba is only 9 miles distant from the coast of Tuscany. It contains 160 square miles, with a population of 13,700 souls. It is very mountainous, and instead of wood the mountains are covered with aromatic plants and bushes. The only large stream is the Rio. The climate is very mild; the seasons change regularly, but autumn and winter are only distinguishable by the greater quantity of rain which falls. The sea-breeze cools the heat of the sun; but the S.E. wind or *libecchio* is sometimes violent. Agricultural labour owing to the thinness of the mould is chiefly performed with the spade, and consequently cannot be very extensive. Some corn, Indian corn, and vegetables are produced, and a quantity of water-melons. All kinds of fruit thrive well, and the wine and oil are good. The American aloe, and the *cactus opuntia* grow very high, and form impenetrable hedges. The principal production of the island is iron, which is wrought near the village of Rio, in a mountain which consists of one enormous mass of iron-ore, which is sent to the continent to be smelted. Copper, lead, and silver-mines have also been opened upon this island. The inhabitants are laborious and simple in their manners. This little island was anciently called *Œthalia*, and afterwards *Iloa* or *Ilva*. It was much resorted to by the Romans on account of its mineral riches. It was subject in the 13th century to the Pisans, and subsequently fell into the possession of the king of the Two Sicilies, who ceded it in 1801 to France. In 1814 it was given in entire sovereignty to Napoleon, who resided upon it from May 1814, to the 26th of February 1815, when he quitted it to return to France. It was given by the congress of Vienna in 1815, to the grand duke of Tuscany. The revenue is said to be about 650,000 francs. The chief town is Porto Ferrajo on a neck of land which stretches into a small bay. The harbour and roads are good, and even fit for large vessels. The town contains

600 houses all built of granite, and 3,034 inhabitants.—Porto Lungona is a fortified town with a harbour and 1,200 inhabitants.—At Capo Liveri on the S.E. side of the island, is the Monte Calamita, containing a magnet-mine which is said to exercise a sensible influence on vessels approaching the island on this side.

Island of Pianosa.] Pianosa is an island to the S. W. of Elba. It is very fertile but quite uninhabited, having been devastated by barbarous pirates.

Island of Gorgona.] Gorgona is an island opposite to Leghorn, about 14 miles distant from the coast. The fishing of anchovies on this island from the 1st of July to the middle of August is so important that from 7,000 to 10,000 barrels of these fish, each weighing 60 pounds, are annually pickled and sent to England.

State of Piombino.] Piombino is a small principality on the coast opposite Elba, containing about 130 square miles, and 13,900 inhabitants. The country is full of swamps and very unwholesome. The inhabitants are supported by agriculture and fishing; but their number seems to be diminishing from year to year. In ancient times this district was fertile, rich and flourishing; the cities of *Populonia*, *Vetulonia*, and the *Portus Lauretanus* existed here. The principality belongs to the prince Ludovisi Buoncampagni, under the sovereignty of the grand duke of Tuscany. The prince also possesses a part of the island of Elba. The chief town is Piombino on the gulf of Fullonica, with 1,500 inhabitants.

3*d. The province of Sienna.*] This district forms the S.E. part of the Tuscan territory. Its surface amounts to nearly 3,200 square miles with only 188,065 inhabitants; it is consequently the least populous district of Tuscany. The reason of this thin population is that the Maremna is contained in it. Sienna is the chief town. It contains a magnificent cathedral, and a fine theatre. The university of Sienna was founded in 1321; it was formerly celebrated, and has still 60 professors, a library, and a botanical garden. It is said that the most elegant Italian is spoken here; and it is certain that even the common people express themselves with striking eloquence and elegance.—At Cascianoa Bagni is the bath of St Philippo, known to the Romans under the name of *Aquæ Clusianæ.*—That part of the province of Sienna which comprehends the Maremna is a desolate country occupying nearly 2,700 square miles of surface. In the neighbourhood of Grosetto is the Torre della Trappiola, near the mouth of the Ombrone, between which and the sea are the salt-lagunes of Tuscany, where 100,000 cwt. of salt are annually produced. The salt is a little bitter, and is chiefly used for pickling fish. Massa di Maremna has 1,000 inhabitants; but a fourth of these emigrate every summer to the highlands. The surrounding country is rich in minerals, antimony, and amethysts.—At Monterotondo is a deep cave remarkable for the stormy wind which always blows from it.—Orbitello a fortified town on the sea-coast, is the chief town of what is called the *Presidia* province, which formerly belonged to Naples and was ceded in 1801 to Etruria.

CHAP. XI.—THE REPUBLIC OF SAN MARINO.

The republic of San Marino is the most insignificant State in Europe, and nevertheless the only one which has not suffered in the political storms which have convulsed all Europe, and of which the constitution

and independence has always been respected by its powerful neighbours. This country lies enclosed in the Delegazion Urbino et Pesaro, belonging to the Papal dominions at the foot of the Appenines; the surface, according to Balbi, is about 22 English square miles. The population in 1826 was 7,000 souls.

History.] On the summit of a mountain, in the ancient duchy of Urbino, between the rivers Marecchio and Amarono, about 1,300 years ago, dwelt a hermit called Marinus, whose holy life procured for him a great reputation throughout the country; a pious lady called Felicitas, gave him the mountain on which his hermitage stood, and gradually several settlers gathered around him, till at last the little fraternity framed for itself a constitution, and formed a republic bearing the name of its founder, of which the independence was acknowledged by its neighbours. In 1,100 the republic bought the castle of Pannerosta; and in 1170 another called Casolo. About 1460 it materially assisted pope Pius II. This was the period of its highest prosperity. In 1739 it was much distracted by internal dissentions and nearly lost its freedom; but pope Clement XII. in 1740, and Benedict XIV. in 1748, again confirmed its independence. Since this time this diminutive republic has always enjoyed tranquillity. In 1796 its citizens very wisely refused an increase of territory offered to them by Napoleon. It enjoyed his protection during the empire, and has now returned under that of the Roman See.

Physical Features.] San Marino lies as has been stated on the vanguards of the Appenines; the valleys are watered by several rivulets; the soil is stony on the heights, but fertile in the valleys, and the vegetation is luxurious. The productions are corn, vegetables, fruit, hemp, chesnuts, wine, silk and oil.

Government, &c.] The inhabitants are Italians and catholics. There are 25 noble families. The constitution is a mixed aristocracy and democracy. The sovereignty rests in a council of 300 members called *anziani* or ancients; and the executive power is vested in another council of 12 members at the head of whom stands a *capitano,* who holds office only three months. Besides him is a commissioner who ought to be a doctor of laws from a foreign university, and who is judge in civil and criminal affairs. The State-physician is also a very important personage. The fundamental law of the republic is called *Statuta illustrissima reipublicæ Santi Marini.* The republic maintains 40 or 50 soldiers, and the revenue is regulated by the expenditure which is fixed every year, and according to which every inhabitant is taxed. The pope allows salt and corn to pass without taxes. No passports are required in this enviable little country, and the punishment of death has not been inflicted by the government within the memory of man.

Towns.] The town of San Marino lies on the summit of the mountain where the hermitage of its founder stood; a single narrow path leads up to it. It contains 3 small castles, 5 churches, 3 monasteries, and about 5,500 inhabitants.

CHAP. XII.—THE PAPAL DOMINIONS, OR THE STATES OF THE CHURCH.

Extent and Boundaries.] The States of the Church embrace the worldly dominions of the pope,—the inheritance of St Peter, as the

catholics call it, or *Stato della Chiesa*. It is a connected country of central Italy, having only two insulated districts,—the duchy of Benevento, within the limits of the kingdom of Naples, and the principality of Ponte Corvo, which is also surrounded by the Neapolitan territory. The boundaries on the N.W., are the Lombardo-Venetian States; on the N.E. the Adriatic; on the S.E. the kingdom of Naples; on the S.W. the Mediterranean, or, as it is called here, the Tyrrhenian or Tuscan sea; and on the W. the grand duchy of Tuscany and the duchy of Modena. From the mouth of the Po on the N.E. to Monte Circio on the S.W. they extend 260 English miles; their greatest breadth from W. to E. is 95 miles, and in some parts only 20. They extend along the shore of the Adriatic from the Po to the Tronto, a line of 175 British miles, and 120 along that of the Mediterranean. Their figure is very irregular. Liechtenstern calculated their superficial extent so low as 670 German square miles, and Crome at 715. We are unable to reconcile this discrepancy but should be inclined to adopt Balbi's reckoning of 17,000 British square miles. In 1816 a census of the population gave 2,354,719 souls; in 1826, Balbi approximated the population to 2,590,000.

Ancient or Roman History.] Rome being the capital of the Papal dominions, we shall here give a very short sketch of Roman history.—We have already adverted to the origin of Rome in our general article upon Italy. According to the ordinary accounts Rome was governed by kings for nearly two and a half centuries, until the year 509 B. C. Its founder Romulus was succeeded by the Sabine prince Numa Pompilius, who reigned till 679 B. C., Tullus Hostilius ruled from 679 to 640. Ancus Martius who reigned from 640 to 617, established a colony and harbour at Ostia, and founded the navy of Rome. The Etruscan Tarquinius Priscus who ruled from 617 to 579, increased the power of Rome. His successor Servius Tullius was the first who imposed taxes upon the people, and with that view divided them into classes and centuries. In 509 B. C. Lucius Tarquinius Superbus was driven from Rome, and the royal dignity abolished after having existed 244 years: Junius Brutus and Tarquinius Collatinus were placed at the head of the new-created republic as first consuls that same year. Long wars with the Etrurians and Latins mark the beginning of this epoch; the people also maintained a perpetual struggle against the power of the patricians, or Roman nobility, and at last obtained the appointment of tribunes to protect their rights. Nevertheless a series of perpetual wars, during which in great necessities a dictator was placed for six months at the head of affairs, exhausted the resources of the common people, and reduced them to the situation of dependents upon their creditors the patricians. In 499 B. C. the laws of the Twelve Tables, which partly confirmed ancient customary laws, and partly introduced a constitution borrowed from the Greeks, were promulgated. The decemvirs or first magistrates were chosen only among the patricians, and were invested with dictatorial powers; this caused a new rebellion, and the people at last, after many struggles, obtained a political equality with their patrician brethren in 366 B. C., when it was decreed that one consul should be elected from among the patricians, and the other from the plebeians,—an arrangement which was afterwards extended to other offices, and even to the priestly dignity. The dignity of censors had been previously established in 443. Before the last great political change on the form of the State, Veii, an important city of the Etrurians, had been subdued in 393, after a struggle of ten years, and in this war the Roman soldiers had for the first

time received wages from the State. In 389 Rome with the exception of the capitol was sacked by the Gauls under Brennus. After the defeat of the invaders by Camillus, the town was rebuilt, and the Romans appeared at the head of the Italian tribes. A long struggle with the Samnites, which lasted for 50 years, at last terminated in favour of Rome, and rendered her the most powerful State in Italy. During these perpetual wars the sciences and arts could not prosper; even navigation was only a secondary concern to the early Romans, and religion a matter entirely subservient to state policy. Success in war alone, and personal gallantry, were the only paths to distinction among a people who owed their existence, power, and grandeur, entirely to their martial spirit About this time the constitution of Rome assumed a democratical form,—the legislative power and the election of the highest magistrates being in the hands of the people. When the Romans next sought to extend their dominions over Lower Italy, and attacked the Tarentines, they became involved for the first time in a war with a foreign king, Pyrrhus of Epirus, whom the Tarentines invited to their aid, B. C. 281. Pyrrhus was twice victorious, in 280 at Pandosia, and in 279 at Asculum; but was defeated in 275 at Benevento. After the conquest of Tarentum the Romans having won the dominion of the whole of Lower Italy, next directed their views abroad and towards Sicily. This brought on the first struggle with Carthage, which lasted 23 years, during which the Romans formed a navy, and defeated the Carthaginians at sea, B.C. 260. From this period the struggle between Rome and Carthage was a contest for the command of the Mediterranean. Hamilcar the Carthaginian general endeavoured to maintain possession of the eastern point of Sicily; but the naval victory of the Romans in 241 forced Carthage to make peace, and to yield Sicily and the neighbouring small islands to her rival. In 237 the Romans took possession of Sardinia; and in 227 Carthage became bound by treaty not to extend her possessions in Spain beyond the Ebro, and not to attack Saguntum which had formed an alliance with Rome. During this period Cisalpine Gaul also became a Roman province by conquest. In 218 a second war broke out between Rome and Carthage which lasted 17 years. Hannibal, the general of the Carthaginians, conquered Saguntum, crossed the Pyrenees, marched through Gaul, and scaling the Alps descended upon the N. of Italy, and won the battle of Cannæ. His arrival and victory were hailed by the discontented tribes of Lower Italy, who hastened to join the conqueror; but not being duly seconded by his country he was unable to follow up his advantages, and whilst his army rested at Capua the Romans collected their forces, and after several desperate struggles the Carthaginians evacuated Italy. In 201 Hannibal lost the battle of Zama in Africa, and Carthage was forced to a humiliating peace, by which she lost all her possessions in Spain. The Romans also conquered part of Asia from Philip king of Macedonia, and the king of Syria; but in becoming acquainted with the wealth and manners of the East they laid the foundation of that national luxury which finally consumed the vitals of the State. By the conquest of Corinth, B.C. 146 the whole of Greece became a Roman province, and in the same year the ancient and powerful republic of Carthage was annihilated after the defeat of its last army, the city itself laid in ashes, and the whole State annexed to the Roman empire under the name of the Province of Africa. The thirst for conquest had now become unappeasable at Rome, while at the same time internal contentions agitated the republic,

and her leading generals struggled for the supreme power. Sylla was created perpetual dictator, which office he voluntarily resigned in two years, B. C. 79; Pompey having completed the conquest of Spain, and of Syria and other parts of Asia, was honoured with a brilliant triumph at Rome in 61. He fancied himself the first man in the republic; but finding a strong party in the senate against him, he changed his political system, and went over from the aristocracy to the popular party. Cæsar, whose deep-laid plans were not then anticipated by any one, returned from Lusitania in the year 60, and allied himself to Pompey and Crassus, persuading them that their common interest demanded this coalition which was called the triumvirate. Cæsar having been named proconsul of Gallia, completed the entire subjection of the Gauls, and crossed over to Britain, a part of which he overran. In the meanwhile civil dissensions again distracted the State, and led to those events in which Cæsar and Pompey played a leading part. After many struggles the fate of the latter was decided in the battle of Pharsalia, fought on the 20th of July B.C. 48, and Cæsar was named dictator for 10 years, with the title of *imperator*. A strong party, however, headed by Brutus and Cassius, opposed his growing power; and on the 15th of March 44 he fell by the hands of conspirators in the senate-house. Another triumvirate was now formed against the republican party by Octavianus, Cæsar's adopted son, Antony, and Lepidus, and a new civil war arose. Brutus, Cassius, and the republicans were defeated by Octavianus and Antony at Philippi; and the two victors afterwards contended between themselves for the dominion of the world, when Octavianus defeated Antony and his ally Cleopatra queen of Egypt, in the battle of Actium on the 2d of September 31, and made himself master of the republic. Octavianus accepted the title of Augustus, declining that of dictator; he left all the forms of the republic nominally subsisting, but united all the real power of the State in his own person. During his long reign, which was peaceable and prosperous, the spirit of republicanism gradually declined. Augustus died the 9th of August A.D. 14, and was succeeded by his step-son Tiberius, who reigned till A. D. 37, but was at last strangled in his bed by his own favourites. His successor Caligula began to reign with great mildness, but soon proved himself so bloody a despot that he too was assassinated in 41. He was succeeded by Claudius, a weak old man, whose reign was marked by the most abominable atrocities, perpetrated in his name by his wives and slaves. Nero, his adopted son, was his successor, and his reign surpassed in tyranny and cruelty even those of his predecessors. He died by the hands of one of his freed slaves on the 11th of June 68. Under his reign Britain became a Roman province. In the succeeding two years no fewer than four emperors assumed the supreme power; namely, Galba in January 68, Otho in January 69, and Vitellius in April 69; and Vespasian, who reigned from 69 to 79, and under whom tranquillity was re-established in the empire. Vespasian was succeeded by his son Titus, whose short reign from 79 to 81 was marked by justice, benevolence, and mildness. Under his brother Domitian who succeeded him, all the despotism of Tiberius and Nero seemed to awake anew. He was strangled in his room, and Nerva succeeded him and reigned till 98. Trajan reigned from 98 to 117. He was one of the noblest princes who ever adorned a throne. Successful in war, he united Dacia, Moldavia, Wallachia, and Transylvania to the empire; and also made Armenia a Roman dependency. His successor Hadrian, who reigned from 117 to 138, improved the internal institutions of the country; but

the most happy times of Rome were under the reign of his two successors, Titus Antoninus Pius, and Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, which epoch lasted 42 years. From the close of this period we date the decay of the Roman empire. Marcus Aurelius's son, Commodus, was a monster of cruelty. His successor Pertinax was an excellent man, but reigned too short a time to carry into effect his plans for the improvement of the empire. After his reign, which ended on the 20th of March 193, the imperial dignity was sold by the guards, and bought by Didius Julianus, who was superseded by Septimius Severus, who reigned from 193 to 211, and restored something like order to the empire. His son, Caracalla, reigned like another Nero. Heliogabalus, who reigned from 218 to 223, was a young man, and his reign was distinguished by folly and absurd tyranny. His successor, Alexander Severus, who reigned from 223 to 236, was a model of virtue in a degenerate age. Under his successor, Maximinus, who reigned from 236 to 238, the military despotism which had been fostered in the State reached its greatest height. From the death of this prince the empire gradually declined; Decius was defeated and slain by the Goths in 251, and Valerian defeated and taken prisoner by the Persians in 261. In 272 Aurelian defeated the empress Zenobia and carried her captive to Rome. Constantine in 323 succeeded to the diadem of the whole Roman empire, and embraced the Christian religion. Under him the whole constitution of the State was changed, and the seat of empire transferred to Constantinople. Dissentions, however, again broke out, and the empire was several times divided and reunited, until, after the death of Theodosius, it was divided between his two sons Arcadius and Honorius, of whom the latter received the western empire in 395. An epoch of exterior wars and internal disputes followed again. In the reign of Maximus, Genseric plundered Rome for 14 days in 455. Nine insignificant emperors succeeded Maximus till the entire dissolution of the Roman empire under Romulus Augustulus in 476, when Odoacer the chief of the Heruli, made himself master of Rome, and assumed the title of king of Italy. He was conquered by Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, of whom we have spoken in our general historical introduction to Italy.

Ancient Roman Literature.] Having briefly spoken of Italian literature, a few words may be introduced here respecting the classical Roman literature and language. The ancient Latin and the Roman language were different. Of the former some traces are found in the laws of the Twelve Tables; it became antiquated at so early a period that even in Cicero's time the songs of the *saliers* or priests of Mars were no longer understood by the people. The second was formed when after the conquest of southern Italy, Sicily, Macedonia, and Achaia, the Greek language began to exercise considerable influence upon Roman language and literature. The first known attempts in poetry were the *fabulæ Atellanæ*, the best of which were borrowed from the Osci in Campania. These soon degenerated into farces which were acted by the young Romans, and bore some resemblance to the Greek satires. The subsequent attempts too, with a few exceptions, were dramatical. Livius Andronicus, a Greek captive from Tarentum, about 500 years after the building of Rome, introduced the Odyssee to the Romans, and through the medium of translations made them acquainted with the dramatical treasures of the Greeks. He was succeeded by Nævius, the two tragic poets Pacuvius and Attius, and by Ennius the first epic poet of the Romans, who is highly praised

by posterior writers, particularly Cicero and Virgil. His cotemporary was Plautus, a happy imitator of the Greek comedians. Afterwards came Cæcilius, Terentius, Afranius, and Lucilius; the Romans had no strictly national theatre. Their dramas were chiefly imitations of the Greeks. For tragedy they showed still less taste. Asinius Pollio, and some of the elder tragic authors are mentioned with praise; but the only tragedies preserved to us are the ten ascribed to Annæus Seneca, and which are very probably the production of different authors. They consist in little more than mere rhetorical declamation. Lucretius wrote a philosophical poem in the Grecian manner. Catullus was distinguished in epigrammatical and elegiacal poetry, and so was Tibullus whom we might place in the first rank as an elegiacal poet. With the age of Augustus a new literary era commenced. Liberty indeed had vanished; but princely protection was granted to literary talent, and Virgil, Horace, Propertius, and Ovid, belong to this most brilliant epoch of Roman literature. The third period begins with Phædrus, an imitator of Æsop; in Persius we begin to perceive the declining spirit of Roman poetry. Lucan, Juvenal, Flaccus, and Silius Italicus, are poets of this epoch. After this and in still more degenerate times, came Avienus, Calpurnius, Ausonius, and Claudian,—the latter a wonder in this iron age. We may close our list of Roman poets with Rutilius Numantianus, and the two Christian poets Prudentius and Sedulius. In the prose literature of the Romans—which we rank above their poetry,—rhetoric, history, philosophy, and jurisprudence form the principal subjects. Of their orators we know many only by name, as Hortensius, Cethegus, Tiberius Gracchus, Cotta, and Cæsar himself. Of the greatest of all, Cicero, 59 speeches have been preserved, which are still the standard of eloquence. When freedom sunk, oratory of course declined; and we may consider as one of its last breathings the panegyric of Trajan pronounced by the younger Pliny; Quintilian was a cotemporary of Pliny, but he has much more merit as a rhetorical and grammatical writer than as an orator. Varro is the most learned grammarian of his time. Among later ones are Aulus Gellius, Censorinus, and Donatus. The first historical writings were dry lists of important events which were preserved in the annals of the Pontifices Maximi, on a board in their dwellings, and in the consuls' notes in the *libri lintei* preserved in the temple of Moneta. Fabius Pictor, Albinus Posthumius, and the elder Cato were the first Roman historical writers. It was in the golden age of poetical literature that the great masters in history appeared: among whom we name Julius Cæsar, Sallust, Livy, and Cornelius Nepos. The universal history of Trogus Pompejus has been lost. Under the oppression of despotism history too degenerated; which is marked in the bombastical language of Velleius, who often stooped to the basest flattery; to the same epoch belong Florus, Valerius Maximus, and Suetonius. Tacitus alone rose above his corrupted age in Roman feeling and depth of mind. His writings exhibit a force of expression which has been often imitated but never equalled. After Trajan, Grecian literature prevailed, and even Roman history was written by Greeks. Justin executed an epitome of Trogus Pompejus' history; but the prevailing ignorance of Roman history was so great that the emperor Valens ordered Eutropius to draw up a short sketch of it for the use of his subjects. Among other historians of this epoch were Aurelius Victor, Marcellinus, and Vopiscus. The philosophical authors of the Romans were Lælius, the younger Scipio, Lucullus, Lucretius, Cicero, and Seneca. In the last epoch of Roman literature we only name

Apuleius, of whose writings the Golden Ass is best known. In epistolary literature Cicero holds the first rank; the letters of the younger Pliny too are written with great elegance. Annæus Seneca, and Sidonius Apollinaris, are also to be classed among the epistolary authors. The Greeks were the teachers of the Romans in mathematics, medicine, and geography. Among the mathematical writers were Vitruvius a distinguished architect; and Frontinus, and Vegetius. In geography the principal authors were Pomponius Mela, Vibius Sequester, and we may also add Tacitus in his work upon Germany. Celsus, Æmilius Macer, and Aulus Apuleius, were distinguished physicians. The elder Pliny has written a work on natural history. In taking a survey of Roman literature we find that its most brilliant epoch was but of short duration, lasting only from Cicero to the death of Trajan; that its prose was superior to its poetry; and that notwithstanding the height to which the Romans arrived in art and science, the Greeks continued their superiors. They might perhaps have reached a higher degree of perfection had they imitated less, and kept more to their own national ideas. It is only in jurisprudence that Roman literature has gained a distinct character. Under the kings almost the whole State was contained in one town. With the beginning of the republic, consuls came in the place of kings, and Roman jurisprudence received a basis in the Twelve tables. When they had reached their highest point of civilization, a body of law was formed in the constitution, and the first centuries of the imperial government were particularly distinguished for scientific writings upon law. The first attempt towards a collection of laws was made under Valentinian III. The Roman law survived the destruction of the empire, and is still the basis of law in almost all the countries of Europe.

Middle History.] When Narses, the general of Justinian, had conquered the Goths and their allies in 552, the central part of Italy was treated like a conquered province of the eastern empire, and governed by an officer who had the title of *exarch*, and held his court at Ravenna. Aistolph king of the Langobards, conquered Ravenna and the whole of the Exarchate; but was forced by king Pepin in 755 to relinquish it to Stephen, bishop of Rome. This donation was renewed by Charlemagne in 774. The policy of the popes in favouring the Normans in Lower Italy, procured them the protection of these warriors, and under Gregory VII. in 1075, the power of the popes reached its greatest height. The crusades in 1096 favoured the plans of the Roman see, of which the power was also increased by the inheritance of the territory of the countess Matilda of Tuscany. To oppose the House of Hohenstaufen in Italy, the pope called the House of Anjou to the throne of Naples in 1265. Internal convulsions excited by the boundless ambition of the popes and their vicious lives, forced them to transfer their court from Rome to Avignon, where it remained from 1360 to 1378. Avignon had been bought by Clement VI. from Joanna queen of Naples and countess of Provence. The popes while at Avignon being wholly under the influence of the kings of France were scarcely recognised by the Romans and Germans; but in 1378 the papal see was again re-established in Rome. The greatest pope of the 16th century was Leo X., who was elected in 1513. Julius II. acquired Bologna in 1513, and Ancona in 1532. Ravenna was taken from the Venetians; Ferrara in 1598 from Modena; and the last duke of Urbino left his States in 1626 to the pope. The temporal and spiritual power of the popes had now reached its highest pitch,

and began to decline gradually. Sextus V. by his politic administration retarded for a while the decay of the power of the popedom; but the prodigality and the follies of his successors produced new evils, and fresh civil dissentions. Clement XIV. a wise and liberal man, in 1773 abolished the order of the Jesuits. In 1783 Naples freed itself from the feudal obligations it had hitherto held towards the pope; and the emperor Joseph II. checked the influence and power of the priests in the Austrian dominions. The victories of the French in Italy forced the pope to yield, in the peace of Tolentino, Avignon to France, and Romagna, Bologna, and Ferrara, to the Cisalpine republic. A movement in Rome against the French in 1797 afforded a pretext for the taking of that city by the French troops, and the leading away of Pius VI. as a prisoner to France. Pius VII. was enabled by the Austrians to resume possession of Rome on the 14th of March, 1800. By the concordat made with the consul Buonaparte in 1801, the pope again lost part of his worldly power. In 1807 new disputes with France arose, in consequence of which Ancona, Urbino, Maccrata, and Camerino were incorporated with the kingdom of Italy; and in 1809 the whole papal dominions were seized, and partly incorporated with France. A revenue of 2,000,000 of francs was assigned to the pope, who was compelled to take up his residence in France, until the events of 1814 allowed his holiness to resume possession of the States of the Church. He was succeeded by Leo XI. who died in February 1829. The present pope has assumed the title of Pius VIII.

Physical Features.] The States of the Church compose a mountainous country, having only in the N. towards the Po, and in the S.E. towards the mouth of the Tiber, some plains. The mountains belong to the Appenines, and are as barren as those of Tuscany and the Genoese dominions, but much higher. Their highest points are the Velino to the N.W. of Rome, and the Monte della Sibylla on the boundaries of Abruzzo. The principal ridge is granite, upon which lie mica, schist, and in some instances gneiss. The lateral branches are partly calcareous, partly volcanic tufa, basalt, and lava. In the large valleys which spread between the mountains the whole fertility of an Italian soil and climate is displayed. The northern plain between the Po, the Appenines, and the Adriatic, resembles the plain of Lombardy. The *Campagna di Roma*, or plain of Rome, is a continuation of the Maremna of Sienna; but is interrupted by the vanguards of the Appenines. What is properly called the plain of Rome, begins at the foot of the mountains of Viterbo, and stretches to the boundaries of Naples. It exhibits an undulated surface. The summits of the mountains are barren; the declivities and glens are fertile, but there are almost no trees. Along the level coast pestilential swamps, frequently overflown by the sea, occur; the volcanic soil is strongly impregnated with sulphur, and sends forth unwholesome exhalations. Here, along the arid plains, the traveller journeys without encountering a human being; extensive wastes variegated by bare swellings of earth, sprinkled with a few wretched shrubs, alone meet his eyes. For the least sign of life he looks in vain; perhaps, a solitary patch of cultivated ground at a distance, serving by its contrast but to increase the horrors of the scene, is the sole proof that man has not entirely quitted even this land of death. Towards the S.E. the plain declines pretty rapidly, and the Astura, the Amiseno, and other small rivers form the Pontine marshes, which stretch from the mouth of the Astura to Terracina, and of which the ancient Cæsars and the popes of modern Rome have often but in vain attempted the draining. Pius VI. indeed,

succeeded at great expense, in draining and putting parts of them into cultivation, and a high road has been established, but the air continues to be very unhealthy; the inhabitants are continually subjected to fevers, and the unwholesome influence of the swamps spreads over all the surrounding country.

Seas, Rivers, and Lakes.] The Mediterranean washes the S.W. coasts of the States of the Church, from Montalto to Terracina, and the Adriatic from Po di Primaro to Tronto; there are no large bays, but at least good harbours at Civita Vecchia, and at Ancona. The Mediterranean receives the Tiber, the Fiora, the Palidoro, and the Amiseno. Into the Adriatic fall the Po with its different arms, the Mentone, the Savio, the Uso—a small coasting river in Forli, remarkable for having been by a papal decision in 1756 declared to be the famous *Rubicon,* though the inhabitants of Cesana believe the Pisciatella to be the true Rubicon—the Chienti, the Tenna, and the Tronto. There are several navigable canals, of which those of Bologna, Cento, and Imola are the most remarkable. There are several inland lakes; the largest is that of Perugia or *Trasimeno,* famous for Hannibal's victory over the Romans; the Lago di Bolsena, formerly called *Vulsinius;* the Lago di Bracciano, formerly called *Sabatinus;* the charming lake of Albano; the Lago di Nemi; the lakes of Fogliana, Monaco, Crapolace, and Saressa in the Pontine marshes; and the extensive Valli di Comacchio, which is rather a swamp into which the sea flows than a lake, but is remarkable for the quantity of fish it contains. There are many mineral springs, among which those at Rome, the warm bath at Bracciano, the Bagni di Staliano, and the springs at Viterbo are the most remarkable.

Climate.] The climate is very mild, and belongs to the second Italian region. The Appenines are however covered with snow from October to April. The heat is softened by the sea-breeze; but the sirocco is felt on the coasts of the Mediterranean. The air on and near the Appenines is healthy; in the Maremna near the Mediterranean, particularly in the neighbourhood of the Pontine marshes, pestilential exhalations spread fevers and ague, which is also the case in the neighbourhood of the Po, and in the whole plain of Rimini.

Agriculture and Productions.] Agriculture is carried on in the same manner here as in the rest of Italy. The lands are in the hands of great proprietors; and are either split into small farms, or cultivated in large estates by factors. But the activity of Lombardy and Tuscany is only found in the plain of the Po; the rest of the country is quite neglected, and the Romans are more lazy than their northern neighbours. Beans are a common article of food; and in the marsh of Ancona onions are reared in immense quantities; vegetables and melons are abundant; saffron is exported; and hemp is a staple-ware of Bologna. Soda is grown to great extent; olives prosper every where, but the oil is not well-prepared, neither is the management of wine well-understood. The best wine is raised at Montefiascone, Orvieto and Monte Cavo. The plain of Rome produces oranges and lemons which are considered the best in Italy, pomegranates, almonds, figs, chesnuts, and pistacchio-nuts; laurel and myrtle adorn the groves; lilies, narcissuses, carnations, and other flowers cover the meadows; and where nothing else prosper, oleander, rosemary, and cistus grow abundantly. The Appenines produce almond, fig, and chesnut-trees, and the finest forests of oaks and firs in which the blow of an axe has never been heard. In the forest of Terracina the valuable cork-tree is found,

which is rare in Italy. Horses are numerous, but nothing is now done to improve the breed. On the mountains asses and mules are generally used. The oxen are very fine and employed in agriculture; cows are also very numerous, on some large estates 2000 cows are kept only for their calves, the milk being of no value. Sheep are extensively reared on the coasts of the Mediterranean; they are of two species; the *negretti* is a small and lively breed with short legs and a coarse wool of which the frocks of all the orders of mendicants, and the coats of the shepherds, postillions and coachmen are usually made; the *pouille* has long legs, long hanging ears, and a fleece of snowy whiteness, as fine as those of Arragon. About the middle of May these sheep are driven from the plains of Rome to the mountains of Norcia and Abruzzo from whence they return in October. Goats are numerous; herds of swine, sometimes amounting to 2000 in number, are kept on the large estates of the Campagna, where they run about half-wild in the forests. Fishing might be very productive if it was carried on with more activity and industry, as the Adriatic abounds in fish, and the Mediterranean also. Fish to the value of 1,500,000 scudi are nevertheless annually imported into this country to supply the enormous consumption occasioned by 160 fast days. Bees are extensively kept and honey is exported; but there is not sufficient wax produced for the enormous consumption of the churches. The climate is very favourable to the silk-worm, and the mulberry is extensively planted; the silk of Fossombrone is thought to be the finest in Europe; that of Bologna is also very good. Gall-nuts and cantharides are objects of exportation.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The existing manufactures merely supply the home-consumption. Silk-weaving is still carried on at Bologna, though not to the same extent as formerly; other articles of manufacture are broad-cloths, paper, leather, alum, vitriol, sulphur, cords, plate, artificial flowers, and stone-ware. The Papal dominions already possess two good harbours on two different seas, and more might easily be established; nevertheless there is no active commerce, and little navigation. The Romans might be wealthy if they chose to make use of all the resources at their command; but their laziness prevents this, and the government holds out very little encouragement to industry. Commerce is mostly carried on by foreigners. The Tiber and the Po are the only navigable rivers; the roads, with the exception of those which lead to Rome and Naples, are very bad.

Inhabitants.] With the exception of about 15,000 Jews living at Rome and Ancona, the inhabitants of the Papal dominions are all Italians and descendants of those Romans who once governed the whole civilized world. The modern Romans possess lively feelings often rising to enthusiasm, a luxuriant fancy, and a clever penetrating understanding. They are irritable and passionate; very susceptible of grandeur and beauty; and generally possess an extraordinary talent for music. Even the lowest classes have nothing of that rudeness, ignorance, and heaviness, which are so often seen in northern nations. They are cheerful and gay like the sky and the face of nature around them, which everywhere invites to enjoyment. Such a nation seems created to occupy a high station; but none of their happy qualities have been cultivated, and what was virtue in the fathers has become vice in the children. An irresistible inclination to idleness and pleasure is prevalent among all classes; and to this is joined an unbounded jealousy and vindictive temper, prompt to seek satisfaction even at the dagger's point. Notwithstanding the enormous

wealth of all the pope's dependents, the utmost misery prevails among the common people, and but few of these children of fortune condescend to share their affluence with the needy, as Christ and St Peter taught. But the cloisters practise the precepts of a humane religion, and are the protectors of the mendicants of modern Rome. The festivals of heathen Rome have only given place to modern superstitions. Triumphal pageants are changed to processions, and the temples of the heathen gods and heroes are transformed into churches sacred to religious heroes, apostles, and martyrs. The pomp and ceremony of the catholic church are almost necessary to the people of the South, who feel only through the medium of their eyes, and who are never devout but when surrounded by glare and magnificence. The spirit of military idleness which the laws of Romulus rendered sacred, is still maintained in its fullest extent, though under another form, and the diversions of the people continue to be necessities for which the State must provide. *Bread and sports* is still the watchword of the Romans, from the game called *mora*, and the exercise of quoits and foot-ball, (which were favourite diversions among the ancient Romans,) to horse-racing, and wading through the inundated Piazza Navona in the dog-days—from the festivities of the vintage to the Saturnalian carnival—from the fire-works of the castle of St Angelo to the illuminated cupola of St Peter's,—all is pleasure and amusement. The opera is the favourite recreation of the well-educated class of the Italians, and particularly the Romans. A beautiful air well-sung will draw tears from their eyes, and actors, poets, and composers, receive in the theatre the approbation their talents deserve. But this excessive enthusiasm is most remarkable in the fair sex. Among the women of the middling class, the spirit of the ancient Roman females is easily recognized: they pride themselves on the place of their birth, and their *Io sono Romana* can never be often enough repeated. The clearness of their complexions presents a striking contrast to the yellow colour of the Neapolitan women, whilst they possess, at the same time, the beautiful features of Raphael's madonnas. The Roman ladies in the higher ranks of life will faint away at the smell of perfumes, and yet the custom of wearing paint is very prevalent among them. Cicisbeism seems to be gradually getting into disuse. The Romans delight in *conversazioni*, and in the coffee-houses the public journals are read with the utmost eagerness. Their language is not so pure as that of Florence; but the pronunciation is much more harmonious.

Religion, &c.] The Catholic church is established here in its greatest splendour. At the head of the church stands the pope and the college of cardinals; the *cardinal vicarius* who is at the same time bishop of Rome, and the *cardinal pœnitentiarius* who issues all dispensations and absolutions, are very important officers. Besides the college of the cardinals, there are 6 archbishops and not less than 72 bishoprics! Innumerable convents—of which the greater part had been abolished during the French domination—the Inquisition, and the Index for purifying the literature have been re-established. The different religious orders are immensely rich. The number of universities, of which there were 10 formerly, has been reduced to 3, which exist at Rome, Bologna, and Perugia. There are several learned societies and academies, and a considerable number of public libraries. Printing-offices are numerous; that of the Propaganda has done much to advance the knowledge of oriental languages. Rome is still the school of fine arts for the whole world. The greater part of the landed property is in the hands of the clergy, who are divided into

regular and secular clergy. The former are very rich; but the latter, with the exception of the higher ranks, are poor and oppressed. The clergy govern the State and fill all the higher offices. The nobility are rich, and the higher classes enjoy great privileges; the citizens are poor, and the peasants are oppressed and miserable. The nature and tenets of the Roman catholic religion are too well-known to require any particular detail. The following creed of Pope Pius IV. shows the principal tenets of the catholic faith:

Creed of Pope Pius IV.

ART. I. "I believe in one God the Father, Almighty, maker of heaven and earth, and of all things visible and invisible.

II. "And in one Lord Jesus Christ, the only begotten Son of God, begotten of his Father before all worlds, God of God, Light of Light, very God of very God, begotten not made, being of one substance with the Father, by whom all things were made.

III. "Who for us men, and for our salvation, came down from heaven, and was incarnate by the Holy Ghost, of the Virgin Mary, and was made man.

IV. "And was crucified also for us under Pontius Pilate, suffered, and was buried.

V. "And the third day rose again according to the Scriptures.

VI. "And ascended into heaven, and sitteth on the right hand of the Father.

VII. "And he shall come again with glory to judge both the quick and the dead, whose kingdom shall have no end.

VIII. "And I believe in the Holy Ghost, the Lord and Giver of life, who proceedeth from the Father and the Son, who with the Father and the Son together is worshipped and glorified,—who spake by the prophets.

IX. "And I believe one catholic and apostolic church.

X. "I acknowledge one baptism for the remission of sins.

XI. "And I look for the resurrection of the dead.

XII. "And the life of the world to come. *Amen.*

XIII. "I most firmly admit and embrace apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other observations and constitutions of the same church.

XIV. "I do admit the holy scriptures in the same sense that holy mother church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the fathers.

XV. "I do profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the new law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one, viz. baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of these, baptism, confirmation and orders may not be repeated without sacrilege. I do also receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her solemn administration of the above said sacraments.

XVI. "I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of *Trent* concerning original sin and justification.

XVII. "I do also profess, that in the mass there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist there is truly, really, and substantially, the body and blood, together with the soul and divinity of our Lord Jesus Christ, and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into the blood; which conversion the Catholic church calls *Transubstantiation.*

XVIII. "I confess that under one kind only, whole and entire Christ and a true sacrament is taken and received.

XIX. "I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory, and that the souls kept prisoners there, do receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

XX. "I do likewise believe that the saints reigning together with Christ, are to be worshipped and prayed unto, and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

XXI. "I do most firmly assert, that the images of Christ, of the blessed Virgin the mother of God, and of other saints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given them.

XXII. "I do affirm, that the power of indulgencies was left by Christ in the church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to Christian people.

XXIII. "I do acknowledge the holy, catholic, and apostolic *Roman* Church, to be the mother and mistress of all churches; and I do promise and swear true obedience to the bishop of *Rome*, the Successor of St Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ.

XXIV. "I do undoubtedly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the sacred canons and œcumenical councils, and especially by the holy synod of *Trent*; and all things contrary thereunto, and all heresies condemned, rejected, and anathematized by the church, I do likewise condemn, reject, and anathematize."

History of the Roman Catholic Religion.] A short sketch of the rise, progress, and decline of the papal system, may not be improper in this place. When the ministers of religion, instead of confining themselves to the proper discharge of their several duties, assume a portion of civil power, and combine the priestly with the political character, they have uniformly proved themselves dangerous to the liberties, and consequently to the felicity of the human race. In no case has this been more clearly exemplified than in the history of the Roman pontiffs. The Christian religion, at first so much despised by the Romans, gradually obtained considerable influence in the empire. Several emperors declared their attachment to the new faith, and distinguished the profession of Christianity by many privileges which had formerly been denied to it. With the poverty of the primitive Christians their simplicity was discarded; and a form of church-government was established which had some resemblance to the civil government of the empire. In 324, the Christian religion was declared by Constantine to be the religion of the Roman empire. This sudden revolution in their favour was too powerful for the forbearance even of Christians; they forgot the persecutions to which they had themselves so lately been subjected, and soon showed themselves willing to persecute in their turn.

At first, however, the chief men in the Christian church were more eagerly employed in the advancement of their own power, than in the depression of that of their neighbours. The dignitaries of the church had borrowed the name of bishops from the primitive pastors. Among these bishops, as soon as a coalition was effected between Church and State, he who presided in the city of Rome had naturally the greatest influence; and the office of bishop of Rome was so anxiously courted that the candidates, forgetting the peaceable precepts of their religion, asserted their several pretensions with the utmost violence and excited in the city a species of civil war. The power for which the Roman bishops contended so furiously must have been considerable; but it was far from being so great originally as it afterwards became. The bishop of Rome as he presided in the churches of the metropolis, was accounted in a religious sense the most dignified among the Roman citizens, but the other bishops had not yet been subjected to his authority, and he had not yet discovered that he was infallible; neither had he the power of issuing ecclesiastical laws, that important office being still vested in the emperor or in the councils. The Roman pontiffs however enjoyed many advantages. They had easy access to the emperor; and many of them seem to have had sufficient penetration to make every use of this advantage. Valentinian, under the influence of the pontifical advice, yielded to the Roman bishop in 372 the right of judging the other bishops of the empire in religious causes, lest religion should be debased by the intervention of civil authority. The bishops assembled in council confirmed this privilege in 378; either not foreseeing the consequences of what they did, or willing to sacrifice a little of their individual influence to the independence and dignity of their order in general. This was one of the most important steps towards that power which the bishop of Rome afterwards acquired, and which he so often exercised to the disturbance of Europe.

The authority of the bishop of Rome received a temporary check when the seat of government was removed to Constantinople. The bishop of the latter city now became a formidable rival to his brother in the west, and the emperors were not backward in encouraging the pretensions of the

bishop of Constantinople, as the honours bestowed on him were in some degree reflected back on themselves. A council held at Constantinople, in 381, by the order of Theodosius the Great, determined that the bishop of the new imperial city should rank next to the bishop of Rome, and consequently that he should be superior to every other dignitary of the church. The bishop of Rome however was extremely jealous of a power which so suddenly approached his own, and scrupled not to oppose with all his influence the newly-created power—hence the origin of that avowed rivalry which caused many disputes and altercations, and at length terminated in the well-known division of the church into the Greek and Latin communion.

The disputes which existed among the adherents of the several leading bishops, induced Constantine, commonly distinguished by the appellation of the Great, to extend his care to the state of the Church. The degree of precedence of the several dignitaries was now settled, their various powers fixed, and the whole combined into a body. The form bore some resemblance to that of a civil government. The affairs relating to the church were divided into external and internal. The external administration—which in these days was by far the most important—comprehended whatever was connected with the outward discipline and state of the Church, and all disputes between clerical personages concerning their civil rights. This external power the emperor took care to reserve to himself. The internal part of the government comprehended all that related to forms of worship, with all disputable points in themselves purely theological and not connected with any civil rights. This part of church-government the emperor delivered entirely into the hands of the clergy. This distinction in ecclesiastical matters was intended to restrain the clerical influence, and to keep the priests in their proper place; but the new regulations were differently interpreted according to the various abilities of the several emperors and bishops, and a pontiff possessed of a vigorous mind often contrived to exercise no small degree of civil power.

In the mean time men were becoming gradually more ignorant, and that system of superstition which the pontiffs had contrived to invest with the appearance of religion was becoming daily more prevalent. The clergy, sensible that their exorbitant claims could not sustain an impartial examination, were careful to render the reign of ignorance still more extensive, and began to insinuate that to favour the earthly ministers of the Deity was an acceptable part of his service. The credulous superstition of the great gradually loaded the churchmen with immense wealth, which while it impaired the sincerity of their religious profession, increased their power, and rendered the execution of their ambitious schemes more practicable. The prevalence of ignorance was perceived to be so beneficial to the clerical cause that its interests were carefully advanced, and knowledge was stigmatized with the name of impiety. Hypocrisy often concealed from the world a course of life, which even superstition dared not to call religious; and men rapidly sunk into a state of barbarity scarcely superior to that of their savage ancestors.

These abuses were common to the prelates of the east, with those of the west. All were equally fond of power, and equally free of any scruples concerning the mode in which it was to be acquired. The Roman pontiff had for some time experienced a formidable rival in the bishop of Constantinople; and in the 5th century that prelate became a rival still more formidable. In 451, it was resolved by a council at Chalcedon, not-

withstanding the opposition of the Roman pontiff, that the bishops of Rome and of Constantinople should enjoy equal dignity and an equal share of power. Nor was the bishop of Constantinople the only rival with whom the bishop of Rome was forced to contend. Juvenal, bishop of Jerusalem, advanced pretensions to an extensive power, nor did his claim seem to be deficient in foundation. He was bishop of that city which every Christian confessed to be of all others the most sacred; and he might be supposed to be the most immediate successor of the apostles. Notwithstanding the force of these claims, however, he was deficient in one point of more practical consequence than all the rest: his wealth and political influence were not equal to that of his powerful adversaries in Constantinople and in Rome, and the conquest of Palestine by the Mahomedans soon rendered his office only nominal.

The progress of ambition is similar in men of all classes. The addition which had been made to the dignity of the bishop of Constantinople, instead of satisfying his wishes had only rendered them more exorbitant. He was now accounted equal to the bishop of Rome, and he desired to be superior. The Roman pontiff opposed the arts of the Constantinopolitan with similar arts, and his usurpations with similar usurpations. John, bishop of Constantinople, under the title of *œcumenical,* or universal bishop, had, in 588, summoned a council to assemble at Constantinople. This title was by no means new, but the power which the eastern bishop now possessed, had rendered it odious to the Roman pontiff, and Gregory used all his influence to procure its abrogation, though without success. He indeed succeeded in procuring a declaration that his formidable rival was not to be considered as his superior; but he sought to make him be regarded as something less than his equal. These exertions were successful in the western parts of Europe, but not in the east. The two prelates now divided among them the whole ecclesiastical power in the Christian world; but the power of the western bishop became daily more considerable, while that of the eastern bishop continued long stationary, and at length, when Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks, was almost entirely annihilated.

The sovereign of the western churches now began to insinuate those doctrines which he afterwards so successfully established. He hesitated not to assert that he was God's vicegerent, and his visible representative on earth. At length, Boniface III. had influence sufficient with Phocas—one of those princes who disgraced the eastern part of the Roman empire—to prevail with him to take the title of œcumenical, or universal bishop, from the head of the Greek, and bestow it on the head of the Latin church. This title which the Roman pontiff was so unwilling to consider as implying any superiority when enjoyed by his rival, was no sooner bestowed on himself than he discovered that the inference of superiority necessarily followed, and immediately called himself the supreme head of the Christian church. The state of Europe during the 8th century was peculiarly fitted for advancing the designs of the Roman pontiffs. Europe was at this time distracted by almost continual wars; usurpations were frequent, and the usurpers, anxious to produce in the minds of the people an idea of the justice of their pretensions, eagerly laid hold of the influence of the pontiff for that purpose; clerical favour was courted as the surest means of attaining power and of securing it when attained; no method of managing the minds of the vulgar equalled that founded on their superstitious prejudices, and none was more extensively resorted to. Had the Roman

pontiff possessed no mode of enforcing his decisions, his power would not, perhaps, ever have attained that extent which it soon reached. Excommunication, however, was a formidable instrument in the hands of the clergy. Not satisfied with depriving an offender of those privileges properly called religious, they caused him to be regarded as an outcast from society, and to hold any intercourse with him was to participate of his crime. It was thus that the power of the clergy became so formidable not only to private individuals but to kings and nations. The former were degraded from their royal state, and their subjects absolved from their allegiance. The latter were liable to the sentence of interdiction. Such powers were of the greatest utility to the clerical influence, and tended much to advance the grandeur of the Roman bishop. Perhaps too the nature of that religion which had prevailed among the western and northern nations of Europe previous to their conversion to Christianity tended to confirm the practice of excommunication. The Druids had exercised a similar power; and the rude Europeans, when they embraced the Christian faith, considered the priests as another kind of Druids, the Roman pontiff being the chief of that order, and readily transferred to the one all the power which had formerly belonged to the other.

During the 8th century, the power of the Roman bishop arrived at a degree of greatness hitherto unexampled. Pepin, mayor of the palace, or in other words, prime-minister to Childeric III. king of France, imagined that he was well-qualified to fill the throne of his master. The States of France had been brought to favour his cause; but he was anxious to give his usurpation somewhat of the appearance of justice. It was resolved, therefore, to lay the case before the Roman pontiff, and to learn from him whether the divine law permitted a warlike people to depose a king of a pusillanimous temper, and to elect one whose temper and qualities more nearly resembled those whom he was to govern. The pontiff stood in need of the assistance of some powerful monarch for the purpose of advancing his ambitious projects, and his answer was such as Pepin desired; Childeric was deposed and his treacherous servant stepped into his throne. The Roman bishop soon after made a journey into France, absolved Pepin of the oath of allegiance which he had formerly sworn to Childeric his master; and to confirm his title, crowned him with his own hand, and anointed him, his wife, and his two sons, with holy oil. This complaisance was not lost: the pontiff received from Pepin the exarchate of Ravenna, and thus became a prince possessed of temporal power.

The Roman prelate now sought to engross that power which had formerly been divided among the numerous subordinate clergy, but the execution of this scheme was much more difficult than that of the former. The kings of Europe, for the most part, willingly yielded their power in religious matters, convinced that the concession was highly meritorious; but to deprive the clergy of much of their clerical power was not so easy an undertaking. The Roman bishop affirmed, that he was consecrated by Christ to be the supreme judge and head of the church, and that, consequently, neither bishops nor councils possessed any power but what was derived from him. Epistles, acts of councils, and similar documents were forged, for the purpose of inculcating this doctrine; and though many, perhaps, wondered at it, few in those dark ages were able either to detect the fallacy of the doctrine itself or the futility of the arguments on which it was founded.

The Roman pontiff having been so successful in the accumulation of

power, was almost justified in assuming the titles of master of the world, and pope or universal father. But the unlimited nature of his pretensions became at length evident, and was violently opposed both by the temporal sovereigns and by the bishops. The history of the popes, from the 11th century, consists almost entirely of a detail of the various schemes formed by the pontiffs for their own aggrandisement, and by the several kings and bishops for the purpose of restraining them within proper limits. Yet notwithstanding every effort to the contrary, the exertions of the popes were for some time successful. Such was the arrogance which they displayed that they scrupled not to affirm that the whole earth was their property, and that its numerous sovereigns held their dominions only as their vassals; at the same time there never was a pope sufficiently courageous to reduce under his dominion the whole of Italy, by declaring himself its legislator and political head; either because it was thought that the priestly government could not support such a weight, or that the jealousy of other powers would prove an obstacle to its views. Hence the popes were habitually careful to prevent any single ruler ever governing the whole; fearing, that by his preponderating force, he would be able to dictate laws even to themselves. Their political interest induced them to keep the country divided into many small states, each dependent on chiefs, who received from the pontiff or his cardinals their impulse and motion; but to prevent this design from being discovered, they had the cunning to conceal it by all the artifices of which they were capable. Having as many trumpeters as there were priests and monks, and holding, as it were, in their hands the minds and hearts of the people, the popes caused it to be believed, that they, as the successors of St Peter and the interpreters of the Divine gospel, had proved themselves the true supporters of universal freedom, by not permitting so fine a country as that under their care to be subject to any individual tyrant. At the same time, instead of the general denomination of 'Italian,' they substituted not only those of Sicilians, Pugliesians, Romans, Tuscans, Venetians, Lombards, Genoese, Piedmontese, &c. but also the names of Florentines, Siennese, Bolognese, Ariminese, Paduans, Pavians, Brescians, and others, of as many miserable municipalities as formed republics, governed by their own laws. Each of these, excited to animosity and mutual antipathy, while it thought it was fighting in support of its own liberty, was made to tear some other to pieces, and thus perpetuate the general weakness and servitude which were the certain fruits of their fatal divisions. Hence it arose, that the once powerful Italy, not possessing that union from which would have resulted its general force and independence, but on the contrary, containing in its own bosom the malignant germ of disunion and debility, became the miserable prey of all the foreign armies that invaded and subdued it piece by piece. What remedy could be applied to such an evil, when the inhabitants of every province, and often of every city, considered their very neighbours as foreigners or enemies, and rejoiced as much at the misfortunes that happened to them, as they would have done had a positive benefit accrued to themselves? Truly indeed is it said, 'If a kingdom be divided against itself, that kingdom cannot stand!' By these means the popes succeeded in dividing the people of Italy, rendering them culpable even in the love they felt for their country, and extracting from a virtuous sentiment the germ of the most mischievous vice, thus transforming the very desire of liberty into an instrument of servitude.

While the power of the popes was thus gradually augmented, religion de-

generated into the most absurd superstition, and at length lost all semblance of what it had formerly been. The worship of saints was introduced at an early period. They were invoked to make use of their influence in heaven for the purpose of advancing the spiritual welfare of the devotee. The reverence paid to saints, introduced the representation of them by images. Invocations were directed towards these idols; and the same veneration which was entertained towards the images of the saints, was held to be due to their relics, or such parts of their bodies or garments as had been preserved from the ravages of time. The notion of an intermediate state between complete happiness and complete misery had formed part of the creed of many of the ancient nations. This idea was again revived and confirmed by several scriptural texts. To pray for the dead thus became meritorious, and the ecclesiastics proportioned the frequency and the fervency of their prayers to the sums received for them. It is easy to perceive that no traffic could be more profitable. As the riches of the church increased, it is natural to suppose that its outward splendour and ceremonies would be proportionally augmented. The administration of the sacraments became pompous and formal; and the celebration of mass was made a constant part of religious worship. Every church having its peculiar saints had likewise its peculiar festivals; and thus at length the greater part of the people's time was occupied by the frivolities of superstition. These trifling ceremonies first began to prevail in the 6th century; their number was continually increased; and during the 8th century they arrived at that pitch of extravagance, which afterwards remained a peculiar characteristic of the Romish church.

When the mind has deviated from the path of truth, its deviations soon become altogether unaccountable. Tired of endeavouring to conciliate the good will of the Deity by doing good to others, the religionists of the 8th century endeavoured to acquire the divine favour, by inflicting penance upon themselves. As the sufferings of the saints in this world are intended as introductory to their happiness in the next, it was conceived to be a necessary consequence, that hardships, voluntarily inflicted, were still more meritorious than such as took place in the ordinary course of events. This introduced a multitude of mortifications almost equalling the voluntary penances common in the East. To enumerate the various species of mortification which were invented and practised is impossible, since they corresponded to the inflamed fancies of individuals. In these self-inflicted austerities consisted the religion of the numerous ecclesiastics; such practices however suited those only who dedicated almost the whole of their time to religious exercises. The religion of the great took a different turn. They had not leisure, and probably had not much inclination, to practise the virtues of mortification; but the priests affirmed that to build elegant churches, to endow them with considerable revenues, and to advance in every shape the temporal interest of those who lived by their religion, were actions so meritorious as completely to atone for the greatest transgressions. Such a mode of religion peculiarly fitted the great. It left them at full liberty to indulge in every vice, provided they dedicated to the use of the clergy a part of their superfluous wealth; and this species of religion at length so enriched the clerical order that in many countries no less than one-half of the most valuable lands was in their possession. There is scarcely any mode of action, however indifferent in appearance, that has not in some age or country been connected with religion. Pilgrimages to places

accounted sacred have been very generally reckoned among the acts of piety: such pilgrimages were during the 8th century very common in Europe. The churches containing particular images or the relics of particular saints were esteemed as being more than commonly holy; and to perform a pilgrimage to one of these was sufficient to atone for many offences; but above all, a journey to Jerusalem was esteemed as sufficient to expiate the most atrocious crimes.

During the 11th century a dispute had arisen concerning the language in which it was proper to celebrate divine worship. Common sense would immediately have asserted that it ought, among different nations, to be celebrated in their peculiar languages: but it was the interest of the clerical order that ignorance should be as prevalent as possible, and it was enacted, therefore, that in the western parts of Europe, divine worship should be celebrated in the Latin language. It was believed that the mysteriousness of the tongue rendered it more proper for the purposes of religion; and men intrusted their consciences to the care of the priest, knowing little of religion but its external forms and ceremonies. The art of printing, by making the acquisition of knowledge infinitely more easy, tended more than any other cause to enlighten the human understanding, and to remove those prejudices which had almost obliterated human reason. Many began to suspect that the pope's authority was not entirely divine, and that his decisions sometimes fell short of infallibility; but few were willing, by an avowal of their principles, to expose themselves to the fulminations of the Roman pontiff. A dispute concerning the traffic in indulgences gave rise to that reformation in religion which has produced in Europe changes so astonishing. The power and wealth of the Roman pontiff were great; but the many projects in which the popes involved themselves demanded immense sums. Leo X. was not less ambitious than his predecessors, and his liberality in the encouragement of the arts, rendered the pontifical revenue inferior to the wants of the pontiff. The most effectual method of filling his empty coffers he considered to be extending the traffic in pardons and indulgences; and different persons were authorized to engage themselves in this species of commerce. The monks, in the different countries, were generally employed as the pope's agents, and they vied with each other in the exertions which they made for his interests. At Wittemberg, in Germany, the management of the trade in indulgences had been bestowed on the Augustine friars; but in a short time the Dominicans had the art to procure the removal of it into their own hands. Shortly afterwards, Martin Luther, an Augustine friar, began to call in question the rectitude of that practice, in which his order had been formerly engaged; and, entering more fully into a notion which had formerly had some influence on his mind, he at last pronounced the whole doctrine of indulgences to be grossly erroneous, and entered, with the zeal of an apostle and the spirit of a martyr, upon that glorious work of reformation, the rise and progress of which we have already sketched in our history of Germany. The name of Luther recals to our mind those extraordinary men who seem to have been expressly "minted and charactered" by heaven in reference to some great work to be accomplished by them, and to the circumstances of the age in which they were to fulfil their destiny. Men that bear upon themselves the visible stamp of a commissioning providence. Endowed with so strong and sagacious an understanding as qualified him to detect substantial truth, by a native penetration which even the subtleties of scholastic learning

were unable to pervert,—yet combined with such skill and mastery in the dialects of the schools as enabled him to turn even a false logic to the support of truth, and overcome her opponents at their own weapons; possessed of bold, daring, straight-forward talents for action, which went right through and dissipated into dust the cobweb arts of those who sought to entangle him,—yet without ever losing that studious, erudite, and contemplative character of mind which elevated him even in the eyes of his antagonists, far above the level of a hasty and unlearned innovator,—he was equally suited for maintaining the cause of truth before the senate of the university and the diet of the empire,—he was, according to the circumstances of the age, the first at once of practical reformers and of academic controversialists. To these qualifications of talent he added others of disposition not less strikingly adapted to the cause which he had to maintain, and to the circumstances in which he had to assert it. A fervid and enthusiastic sense of the height of his vocation, which in so great a cause we may pardon if it occasionally ran into fantasy and something like presumption,—an eager impetuosity of temper of which even the excesses at least in his great dispute with Rome are almost justified by the magnitude and shamelessness of the abuses he opposed,—a quickness and decision of purpose which made him always take the shortest way to his ends, and get over it at the speediest pace,—an invincible energy of will, and steadfastness of resolution which no danger could affright, no power could overawe, no difficulty could tire out—combined in forming him to a moral character which in the strength of its lineaments, and the magnitude of its effects, is second only to that of the greatest of Christian heroes,—Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles. Thus was established that religious liberty which gradually extended itself from Germany to the other nations of Europe; and thus the Catholic hierarchy received a shock which has brought about almost the entire annihilation of that once formidable power. No event recorded in history has had a more powerful effect in altering the condition of the human race. To it Europe owes a great part of that superior civilization which it at present enjoys; and religion much of that purity which it exhibits. To trace these consequences in their various ramifications, is an undertaking for which this cannot be reckoned the proper place.

Government.] The government is an elective monarchy. The pope, who has the legislative and executive power, is elected by the college of cardinals from amongst themselves.* The number of cardinals is generally about seventy—seldom more than two or three under or over. Of these the greatest part are altogether insignificant and passive, and mere tools in the hands of a few active leaders. These efficient persons again are generally divided, when a conclave is held, into two regular factions or parties; the one consisting of those who had held office in the time of the last pope,—the other of those who had been raised into consequence by his immediate predecessor: for as popes are generally elected in advanced life, their partizans survive them for a long time, and acquire, by experience and management, an influence quite equal to that which belongs to the recent possessors of authority. A third interest in conclaves, and often the most considerable of any, is that of the foreign cardinals, who represent the political views of the catholic States to which they respectively belong. Since the middle of the 16th century, when the overbearing supremacy of the holy see first began to be questioned, the Catholic powers have commonly insisted on the papal election being made

on the principle of the balance of power,—and France, Spain, and Portugal, have always claimed and exercised the power of interposing with an absolute *veto* against any individual nomination. It is enough to exclude any candidate, that the representative of any of these powers shall announce, *Il mio Re non lo vuole.* Austria substantially enjoys the same right, though it is not formally recognised. Since the time of Adrian VI., who was obtruded by Charles V., all the popes have been Italians. The cardinals, who are all settled in that country, are resolute not to give themselves a foreign master;—and the States that must otherwise contend for the preference, are generally content with the compromise. The only other general principle seems to be, that the choice shall fall on one with talent enough to save the office from degradation and abuse, but not of that commanding genius that would defy control, or disdain assistance. Constitutionally, the pope is a very absolute sovereign; but, in practice, he is generally but the head of an Oligarchy. When the election is completed, the new elected pope is publicly proclaimed, and crowned with great solemnity with the triple crown, which is attached to a mitre, after which he takes possession of his episcopal church of the Lateran. His residence is at Rome, where he has two splendid palaces, the Vatican and Quirinal. He is obliged always to wear a particular kind of dress, to which belongs the ring of St Peter. He calls himself *Servus Servorum*, and *Catholicæ Ecclesiæ episcopus;* and is addressed by the titles of Holiness, and Holy Father. He has a numerous court. The highest college of the church is that of the cardinals; they ought to be 70 in number, but are seldom complete. They are perfectly equal in rank, and have a particular dress, with a red hat. Their dignity is not accompanied by any revenue; but they are of course always in possession of rich benefices besides. They are named by the pope; but most of the Catholic powers have a right of presentation. The principal ministers of the pope are chosen from among them. Each cardinal, and consequently each pope, has to swear to certain articles, among which are the inalienability of all the benefices and lands of the Church considered as the dominions of St Peter. The consistorium of Rome is the first office of administration; the peculiar branches are administrated by congregations, at the head of which is a cardinal. The laws are the Roman and canon law; but a new code is projected.

Revenue.] The revenue is greatly diminished in comparison with those times when the Pope received tithes from the whole Christian world. Balbi supposes it may amount to £1,237,000; but there is a considerable deficit, the expense always exceeding the revenue; and the debts are supposed to amount to nearly £25,000,000.

Military and Naval Force.] The military force maintained by the States of the Church is said to amount to 8,000; by others it is estimated at 12,000 men, among whom are 40 Swiss, forming the Pope's body-guard. There is no navy; there were formerly a few galleys, but they have been destroyed. It is in contemplation to build a few small vessels of war. The States of the Church are divided into the dominions of Rome, and 17 delegations.

I. THE DOMINIONS OF ROME.

These occupy the W. part of the Campagna di Roma; their surface is about 900 square miles, with 250,000 inhabitants. In the W. along the sea,

the country is flat and sandy, and the soil everywhere volcanic. The Albanian mountains rise in the E. where the country becomes more romantic, pleasant, and populous.

City of Rome.] Rome, the ancient *Roma*, the capital of the State, and residence of the pope, though no longer the capital of the world, is still one of its most remarkable cities; and so long as it preserves the Pantheon and church of St Peter, the Coliseum, the Vatican, the Sistinian chapel, its magnificent palaces filled with the treasures of ancient and modern art, its Apollo, and its 'population des statues,' it will remain the boast and wonder of Europe. Still Rome, like Babylon and Persepolis, affords one of the most striking lessons recorded in the instructive page of history and the experience of man, of the instability of human grandeur, and the mutability of imperial power. While the Divine malediction has been so completely fulfilled upon *the Golden City*, (Babylon,) that it is with the utmost difficulty travellers can recognize its ruins, or the most accurate geographers fix its site, the seven hills on which the *Eternal city* once stood, are still inhabited by a few miserable friars, and their more miserable dependants; but the silence of solitude, and the awful aspect of a desolation too vast to be grasped by any effort of imagination, chill the heart of the beholder, and forcibly remind him of that total oblivion to which she too is hastening under the insupportable weight of the divine denunciation. Yet it is not the paltry stream of the yellow Tiber gliding lonely through the dreary wastes of the Campagna,—it is not the heterogeneous mixture of meanness and magnificence, of wealth and poverty—those striking features of modern Rome—that arrest the attention of the classical observer,—it is the people that once inhabited these ruins, with all the accompanying circumstances of their past history and glory, that crowd upon the imagination. It is here that the shades of demigods and heroes, of statesmen and orators, of poets and philosophers, pass in review before the contemplative mind; a Virgil and a Horace, a Livy and a Tacitus, the Scipios, and Sylla, and Marius, and Pompey, and Cæsar, and Cicero, and Brutus, and Cato, pass in solemn array before us; we are forcibly reminded of the ceaseless changes of the external world, of the wreck of man, and his works and his inventions; we view as it were a vast funereal procession which conveys individuals, kingdoms, and empires, with their passions, their monuments, and their languages, to that oblivious gulf where remembrance is lost; we behold the wise Greeks disappear, and the gulf close upon the mighty Romans, while a faint murmur of their languages, ere long to be lost in utter and eternal silence, echoes feebly upon the ear.

Alas the lofty city! and alas
The trebly hundred triumphs! and the day
When Brutus made the dagger's edge surpass
The conqueror's sword in bearing fame away!
Alas, for Tully's voice, and Virgil's lay,
And Livy's pictured page!—but these shall be
Her resurrection; all beside—decay.
Alas, for earth, for never shall we see
That brightness in her eye she bore when Rome was free!

Rome stood originally on seven hills; three other hills were afterwards enclosed within its walls. It was divided into 14 wards by Augustus Cæsar; and attained its utmost extent in the reign of Valerian, when its circumference exceeded 50 miles. We are unable from want of authentic documents to ascertain the utmost extent of its population; some rating it at 6,800,000 in the time of Trajan: whilst others—amongst whom we

must rank the celebrated Gibbon—think that it never exceeded 1,200,000. In 1819 modern Rome was ascertained by census to contain 134,161 inhabitants; and in 1825 the population had increased to 138,370 souls. Rome, when in the full blaze of its glory, contained 700 temples, and altars innumerable; 3 *Senacula;* 21 *Basilicæ* or stately palaces for the administration of justice; 15 *Nymphiæ* or great halls for marriage ceremonies; 2077 *Domes* or splendid palaces; and a vast number of private houses, called *Insulæ*, so separated from one another that a man might easily go round them; 145 public offices; 2 large hospitals; 22 famous porticoes where the people might walk in time of rain or avoid the excessive heats of a meridian sun; 29 public libraries; 5 colleges or academies for the instruction of youth; 254 mills for grinding corn; 327 granaries; 39 colossuses of brass, and 51 of marble. Eleven colossal statues adorned the capitol alone; and 19 of gold, and 30 of solid silver glittered in different parts of the city. Within its walls were also counted six enormous obelisks, 42 lesser ones, with many pyramids, 32 sacred groves, 14 aqueducts, 105 fountains, 1352 lakes or pools brought into the city from several springs, 17 great squares or forums, 117 public baths—amongst which may be mentioned those of Dioclesian and Caracalla,—the former of which had marble seats for 3,200 persons to bathe in without seeing one another, and the latter 1,600 seats of polished marble—and 909 private baths. The golden palace of the worthless Nero was the most large and splendid of imperial Rome. In the threshold stood a colossal statue of that emperor 120 feet high. It had three porticos, each a mile in length, and supported by three rows of pillars. The garden resembled a park, and contained an immense piece of water, with woods, vineyards, and pasture-grounds. On the banks of the lake rose various edifices resembling towns. In the palace itself, the rooms were lined with gold, gems, and mother-of-pearl; and the ceilings of the dining-rooms were adorned with ivory pannels, so contrived, as to scatter flowers, and shower perfumes upon the guests. Statues of bronze and marble appeared on every side of the imperial city in such profusion as to form, in the hyperbolical expression of Cassiodorus, "a population numerically equal to the living inhabitants." There were 5 theatres, 2 amphitheatres, and 7 circusses within the walls, one of which the Circus Maximus alone contained seats for 260,000 spectators. The Flavian amphitheatre—the ruins of which still remain—placed in the centre of the hills of Rome, towered as high as their loftiest summits. This stupendous fabric was called the *Coliseum*, from its colossal size. Twelve thousand Jewish captives were employed by Vespasian in raising this enormous edifice, the building of which occupied only 2 years and 9 months. Its seats or steps contained 87,000 spectators; and if, at a very moderate calculation, we add to their number 11,000 who might be placed on the porticos, and 12,000 in the surrounding passages, it must have contained at least 110,000 persons, who could distinctly behold the games and combats on the arena. It was of an oval form: its longest diameter being 615 feet 6 inches, and its shortest 510 feet. No ancient or modern building—not even those prodigious piles, the Egyptian pyramids—can vie with the Coliseum. These were merely massy and vast,—the works of rude force, without order or elegance of design; but the Coliseum required the utmost degree of architectural skill, as well as the resources of a mighty and opulent empire. With a sublime magnificence, which after the lapse of twelve centuries is still contemplated with astonishment in its ruins, it united that elegant simpli-

city which marks the refinement of cultivated taste,—thus affording a specimen of human power altogether astonishing, and a proof of the skill, the energy, the resources, and the grandeur of the Romans. Of the squares of the ancient city, that of Trajan was the most conspicuous. It consisted of four porticos, supported by pillars of the most beautiful marble. The roof of the porticos rested upon brazen beams, and was covered with plates of the same metal. It was adorned with statues and chariots of gilded brass; and the pavement was of variegated marble. The entrance was by a triumphal arch at the one end; at the other, and opposite, was a temple; on one side was a basilica, on the other, a public library; in the centre rose the celebrated column crowned with a colossal statue of Trajan; and the equestrian statue of that emperor fronted the basilica. Apollodorus was the architect of this wonderful pile; and so great was the beauty of the architecture, and so rich the materials, that those who beheld it found themselves utterly at a loss for words to express their admiration. The Latin of Ammianus Marcellinus describing his feelings at the view of this matchless structure, is absolutely untranslateable. The very sewers of ancient Rome, for the purpose of draining away the filth of the city, were stupendous; and on one occasion, it required a sum equal to £100,000 sterling to cleanse them. Of all the religious edifices of pagan Rome, the temple of Jupiter, on the brow of the Capitoline Mount, the ruins of which still remain, was at once the most ancient, the most magnificent, and the most opulent. It was built by Tarquinius Priscus, in consequence of a vow he had made in the Sabine war. Tarquinius Superbus finished it with the spoils taken from the neighbouring nations. The gifts and ornaments with which it was at several times adorned almost exceed belief. At one time Augustus gave to it in coin, gold bullion, and jewels, to the value of £1,500,000. It was, from its site, the most conspicuous, and from its destination, the most sacred of all the Roman temples. To it the consuls repaired to be solemnly inaugurated; in it the emperors received the imperial diadem, and were clothed with the regal habiliments; hither the victorious consuls, followed by their conquering legions, and preceded by captive princes, rode in solemn triumph; here were deposited the treasures of vanquished monarchs; the spoils of temples and of regal domes adorned, and the plunder of a conquered world enriched it; it was in reality the treasury of the imperial city—the deposit of the spoil of accumulated triumphs, and of centuries of victory and conquest. Crowns, shields, and statues of gold—the offerings of kings, emperors, and heroes, blazed on every side; its threshold was bronze, the valves of its portals were gold, and the roof was bronze doubly and trebly gilt.

Modern Rome is 13 miles in circumference, but has a prodigious quantity of waste ground, comprehending gardens, fields, and meadows: some streets are of immense length, others are only half-built; many are narrow and crooked; here palaces built in the most noble style are half-hidden among miserable huts, there all is gorgeous and magnificent. The effect of all this constitutes not a fine town; but the whole nevertheless makes an irresistible impression on the mind; and wherever we turn the monuments of present and the remnants of departed magnificence exercise a magic power upon the imagination. Modern Rome is divided into 14 quarters or *rioni*. 1*st*. The *Rione de Monte* is the largest quarter; it contains numerous public buildings and monuments, among which are the column of Trajan,—the church of St John de Lateran,—the cathedral of Rome,—the parish church of the pope, the *ecclesiarum urbis et orbis mater*

et caput,—the church of Bibiana, under which are the graves of 5,260 martyrs,—that of St Maria Maggiore, one of the most splendid churches of Rome, with the Sixtinian and Borghesian chapels,—the villa Albani and the villa Borghese, with their splendid collections of paintings and antiques,—and the ruins of the baths of Titus and Dioclesian. 2*d*. The *Rione di Treoi* contains a large but irregular square, the Piazza di Monte Cavalla, in which stand two colossal antique horses; here is the Quirinal, the ordinary residence of the pope, with a large garden,—the palace Della Consulta,—the magnificent palace Barberini, which besides many treasures of art contains a library of 60,000 volumes,—and the Corso the most magnificent street in Europe which serves for the drives and rides of the fashionable world, and where the races and carnivals are held. 3*d*. The *Rione di Colonna*, in which stand the column of Antoninus,—the celebrated Pantheon now called Maria ad Martyres, in which are the tombs of Raphael, Metastasio, Annibal Caracci, and Mengs,—the palace of the Propaganda,—and the Piazza di Spagna one of the finest in Rome. 4*th*. The *Rione di Campo Marzio* takes its name from the ancient Campus Martius which is still the principal place; here is the Piazza del Popolo from which the Corso begins, and the magnificent Porta del Popolo, a work of Michael Angelo. 5*th*. The *Rione di Fonte* in which are the Strada Julia one of the finest in Rome, the churches of St Giovanni di Fiorentino, and the hospital of St Spirito. 6*th*. The *Rione di Parione* with the Campo di Fiore contains the theatre Della Pace,—the place Pasquino on which formerly stood the remarkable statue of the same name,—and the palaces of Orsini and Pamfili. 7*th*. The *Rione della Regola*, contains the churches of St Girolama della Carita, and St Tomaso, with the English college and the palace Farnese, one of the most remarkable in Rome. 8*th*. The *Rione di S. Eustachio*, which takes its name from the church St Eustachio, contains the Sapienza or the university of Rome. 9*th*. In the *Rione della Pigna*, is the church of Maria Sopra Minerva with a convent of Dominicans, in which is the office of the Inquisition. 10*th*. In the *Rione di Campitello*, the Capitoline mount, and the Tarpeian rock are objects of veneration. In the midst of the square stands the celebrated bronze equestrian statue of Marcus Aurelius. The capitol is distinguished by its beautiful stair, before which stands the Colonna Rostrata, and by the magnificent collections of art which it contains. United with it is the palace of the Senatoria, and that of the Three conservatori. Here too is the Piazza Vaccino, the ancient Forum Romanum, now a desert covered with ruins, among which stand the triumphal arch of Severus, the ruins of the temple of peace, and of the temple of the sun and moon, the triumphal arch of Titus, the Circus Maximus, and above all the magnificent Coliseum. 11*th*. In the *Rione St Angelo*, is the fishmarket or Pescaria, and the Ghetto, or quarter of the Jews. 12*th*. The *Rione di Ripa*, contains the Monte Testaccio,—the catacombs,—the pyramid of Curtius, where is the burial-place of the protestants,—the church of St Paolo, after St Peter's the largest in Rome,—an antique arch near the gate of St Sebastian, in the neighbourhood of which are still seen the tombs of the Scipios, and the graves of the Horatii and Curatii,—and the circus of Caracalla. 13*th*. The *Rione Trastivere*, on the W. side of the Tiber is united by 2 bridges with the rest of Rome. The inhabitants of this quarter are said to be very rude and uncivilized; here is the church of St Pietro di Montorio, containing the transfiguration by Raphael,—the Fontana Paolina the most abundant in Rome,—a botanical garden,—and the palace Corsini, with a library and

a rich collection of pictures. 14*th*. *The Rione di Borgo*, once a suburb, is now the most remarkable quarter of Rome. Here is the castle of St Angelo, the citadel of Rome; it is built around the mausoleum of Hadrianus, which rises in the midst of it. The jewels of the pope, the archives, and the Sixtinian treasure are kept here. In this quarter rises the cathedral of St Peter, the finest and most majestic in Christendom; the plan was conceived by Bramanti, and executed by Michael Angelo, Vignola, Bernini, and Maderni. Most of the drawings of the plan were done by Michael Angelo, who also built the double cupola. This magnificent edifice is erected upon the site of an ancient basilica. It is undoubtedly the most superb pile of modern building in the world: being 730 feet long, 520 broad, and 450 in height, to the summit of the cupola, which is itself 620 feet round, and surpasses in magnitude, beauty, and sublimity, all the pagan temples of antiquity. It was 111 years in building, during the reign of eleven successive popes, and cost the enormous sum of £12,000,000 sterling; it would have cost in this age and country 36 millions sterling. The cross above the cupola is 487 feet elevated over the floor, and consequently 39 feet higher than the highest pyramid in Egypt. The principal chapels are those of The Sacrament, St Michael, and of the popes Clement and Gregorius. The canopy over the principal altar is supported by 4 brass pillars 122 feet high. Before the church is a beautiful square surrounded by a fine colonnade. In the middle stands an Egyptian obelisk resting on four lions of brass; and on both sides are fountains with water-spouts. Here is the Vatican, another residence of the pope, where the canclave is held. It is 1300 feet long, and 1000 broad, with a vast number of apartments. It contains the Sixtinian chapel, with the celebrated picture of the Last Judgment by Michael Angelo, a magnificent library with 160,000 volumes, among which are 40,000 manuscripts;[10] and the Museum Pio-Clementinum, with the

[10] This magnificent collection of books, which the love of the popes of Rome for science and their rival magnificence has accumulated during several centuries, is placed in one of the finest situations which the city of Rome commands. An antichamber, connected with the corridor of Inscriptions, conducts into a room destined for the use of readers; after which succeeds a range of spacious halls in which the invaluable MS. treasures of the library are preserved in unadorned wooden presses. The ceilings and walls are adorned with fresco paintings, and the cornices are ornamented with vases. The history of this collection, so truly worthy of the name *Panoplia* which has been given to it, goes back to the time of Constantine the Great, if we are to credit the somewhat legendary history of Assemanni in the catalogue of this library. (*Bibl. Apost. Vat. Codd. MSS. catalogus, &c.*) A few probably insignificant collections formed the nucleus of the Vatican library. These were increased by the purchases of Nicholas V. whose times afforded him considerable opportunities for collecting books. Sextus V. embellished the exterior, and added the great hall in which the principal part of the library is now placed. Leo X. enriched the collection with Grecian MSS. and Pius IV. employed himself in collecting oriental works. Pius V. united the archives with the library; and Paul V. and Urban VIII. enlarged the accommodation. The plunder of the Heidelberg library rendered this addition necessary. Clement VII. added the Urbino MSS. and under Alexander VIII. the library was further enriched by the MSS. of queen Christina of Sweden amounting to 1900. Benedict XIII. presented it with the MSS. of Ouoboni. The latest addition was the library of Count Cicognara, which was purchased by the late pope Leo XII. and placed in a room by itself. This inestimable collection of MSS. and rare impressions is very deficient in modern literature; and its value is greatly diminished by the want of arrangement conspicuous throughout its details. Even catalogues are wanting, or inaccessible to visitors; for the above-mentioned catalogue of Assemanni comprehends only a very small part of the collection, and is itself a rarity, most of the copies having been destroyed by fire in 1768. For the other rooms there are only a few ill-digested catalogues. Nor are the old laws of Clement XIII. and Innocent XIII.—which are still in existence—the most liberal that could be conceived; and it is alleged by travellers that the present librarian, Signor Maio, is little disposed to relax the rigour of these restrictions. The value of the library to the public is also greatly lessened by the number of holidays during which it is of course inaccessible to visitors.

immortal statues of the Apollo and the Laocoon. It is remarkable that Rome, whether in ancient or modern times, has produced but few great men. With the exception of Tibullus, none of the distinguished poets of antiquity were natives of Rome; and the decline of Roman literature crowned the Spanish Hesperides, Martial, Lucian, and Quintilian. Modern Rome has not produced a single musician of celebrity. Julio Romano and Carlo Maratti are the only distinguished painters natives of modern Rome, and Vanvitelli and Bernini the only eminent architects. Yet Metastasio was a citizen of modern Rome, as well as Crescembini; the latter founded the *Academia degli Arcadi*, which has existed about 100 years, but he cannot be placed in the highest rank among poets.

Thus have we given our readers a very brief sketch of this queen of cities,—

> " The city that so long
> Reign'd absolute, the mistress of the world,—
> The mighty vision that the Prophets saw,
> And trembled."

To do the subject justice,—even to give a bare catalogue of her mighty ruins,—would require volumes. To give any thing like a sketch of her history is here impossible; it would indeed be nothing short of an attempt to give a sketch of the history of the world for the greater part of the last 3000 years. She has indeed been, to use the emphatic language of the Scripture, 'the hammer of the whole earth,' 'a destroying mountain which destroyed all the earth.' Though profanely dignified with the epithet of 'the eternal city,' again and again has the cup of divine retribution been at her lips; and under repeated draughts, though the bitter dregs are yet to come, she has become, instead of an object of envy and terror, one of contempt, or rather of commiseration, to every beholder. She who had arrayed herself in the splendours of a conquered world, and gathered into her treasuries the riches of the people, was ten times successively taken, sacked, and burnt, by the congregated hordes of the East and of the North, who, impelled horde upon horde, like the waves of a tempestuous sea, burst every opposing mound, and completed the destruction of her wide-spread empire. The sun of Italy then ceased to shine, and the star of the *Eternal City* for a time set in darkness. But this was only in anticipation of her fate. She was not indeed destined with buckler and spear, again to overwhelm the prostrate nations; but she sent forth her armies arrayed in the cloak and the cowl, the pall and the mitre, who exercised over the minds and the consciences of men a more terrible dominion than she had hitherto exercised over their bodies. We are told that the illustrious Scipio when he entered fallen Carthage, could not refrain from tears,—a pensive silence seized upon him which he at length broke with these lines from Homer:

> " The day will come when Troy shall sink in fire;
> And Priam's people with himself expire."

Being asked by the historian Polybius, who was his companion on this occasion, what he meant by Troy and Priam's people, he, without naming Rome, gave the historian to know that in Troy and Carthage he foresaw the fate of his own country: " The greatest States," said he, " have their periods, after which fortune overturns what she took pleasure in raising." These melancholy forebodings seem now to be rapidly accomplishing. The *malaria* appears to be investing the city on every side. There are exten-

sive districts in Rome in which are nothing but huts, inhabited by the peasantry whom the pestilential atmosphere has compelled to abandon their habitations in the country. Every year too, this invisible scourge is advancing,—every year it invades some fresh street, some new square or quarter,—and every year its terrible influence is augmented. The hills and elevated grounds within the walls of the city, where this insalubrity in former times was never felt nor even suspected, are now affected by it in the summer. The Porto del Popolo, a part of the Corso, the entire quarters of the Quirinale, La Trinita del Monte, and the Trastavere, are already deserted; there are many more houses than inhabitants; when they get out of order the occupiers move to others, and neither doors, stairs, nor roofs are ever replaced. Multitudes of convents have thus acquired the appearance of ruins, and many palaces no longer habitable are left without even a porter to take care of them. It is therefore probable that the moment is not far distant which is to strip this queen of cities of her splendour; and of all her glory leave her nothing but her immortal name; this great city which made all nations rich by the multitude of her merchandise, and arrogated to itself the title of Eternal, is apparently to fall at last under the blow of an invisible enemy.

Towns.] Tivoli, with 5,434 inhabitants, is celebrated for the waterfalls of the Teverone, the ruins of the villa of Adrian, and those of the villa of Mecænas.—Between Tivoli and Rome is the bridge Della Solfaterra, over a brook of a celestial blue colour, which comes from the Lago di Bagni, famous for its sulphurous exhalations and swimming islands.—Veletri is a town of 9,744 inhabitants.—Albano near the lake of the same name, has 2,400 inhabitants, and many antiquities, among which is the pretended tomb of Ascanius.—Frascati has a population of 4,203 souls, and many villas in its neighbourhood. Cicero's Tusculan villa is supposed to have stood here.—Ostia is merely the ruin of a town, having been nearly deserted on account of the bad air.—Torre d'Anzio occupies the site of the Roman city *Antium.*—Torre d'Astura is a small sea-port town where Cicero was beheaded, and Conradin, the last of the Hohenstaufen family, was taken prisoner. Torre Paterno marks the site of old *Laurentium.*

II. THE SEVENTEEN DELEGATIONS.

1*st. Frosinone.*] The northern part of Frosinone is mountainous; the S.W. part between the rivers Astura and Amaseno is covered by the Pontine marshes. The highlands enjoy a delightful climate, and most of the productions of the S. of Italy are raised here; but agriculture is greatly neglected, and the inhabitants, particularly near the boundaries of Naples, are an indolent rapacious race. In the S.E. is the large forest of Terracina. Frosinone, the chief town, has 6,014 inhabitants.—Terracina is a town on the sea-coast with 4,073 inhabitants. It was the ancient *Anxur.* There are some remnants of the *Via Appia* here. The forest which takes its name from this town is rich in cork-trees

2*d. Rieti.*] This delegation was the ancient *Sabina.* It is a mountainous wild country, covered by the vanguards of the Appenines, among which are many extinguished volcanoes.—Rieti, with 7,000 inhabitants, is the chief town. It has some silk-manufactures.—Magliano is a town on the Tiber with 4,000 inhabitants. Horace's villa is shown here in the neighbourhood of Licenza.

3*d. Viterbo.*] The northern part of this delegation is mountainous; the western is a table land with many small hills. The eastern district

is a complete Maremna,—a continuation of that of Sienna but not quite so unwholesome. In the N. are enormous forests in which an axe has never been heard. In this quarter also is the large lake of Bolsena, around which lie high mountains: as the *Mons Ciminius*, at Viterbo the Soriano, near the Tiber the St Oresto—the ancient *Soracte*,—and lower down the Musino. The chief town is Viterbo with 12,588 inhabitants, many of whom are employed in refining sulphur. In the neighbourhood are celebrated baths, and the sulphurous lake of Bullicanne.—Civita Castellana with 3,000 inhabitants, is believed to have been the ancient *Fabrii.*—Monte Fiascone is built on the top of a hill, and has as little to recommend it as the other papal towns. Its only good thing is its famous Muscat wine, termed *Est Est*, from a ridiculous story they tell of a German bishop, who died from partaking too largely of the flowing bowl.—At Orvieta also very good wine is grown.—The Ponte Milvio in this district marks the site of the ancient *Pons Æmilius*.

4th. Civita Vecchia.] This is a small flat district. In the N.E. are some hills which furnish the celebrated Roman lettuce. The town of Civita Vecchia has 7,111 inhabitants, and a harbour which exports the productions of the S. part of the country. The bad air, however, prevents foreigners from settling here. In the neighbourhood is the Bagni di Palazzi.—At Tolfa fine white alum is wrought. A good deal of manna is also collected here.—St Severa is a small fort on the coast.

5th. Spoleto.] The Appenines run through this province. The vegetation is luxuriant, and the country is rich in corn. The chief town is Spoleto with 7,000 inhabitants. A magnificent Gothic aqueduct conveys the water to the town, in which are many antiquities, among others a triumphal arch, the ruins of a theatre, and of the temples of Jupiter and Mars, and of the palace of Theodoric.—At Amelia the best raisins in Italy, known under the name of *pizotello*, are grown.—Narni is celebrated for a magnificent aqueduct.—Terni, with 5,000 inhabitants, was the birthplace of the historian Tacitus. In the neighbourhood is the waterfall Della Marmora, where the Velino falls into the Nera.—At Cesi there is a large cave called Grotta di Vento, in the Monte Eolo, from which constantly issues a strong wind.—Strettura, a hamlet at the foot of the Somma, one of the highest of the Appenine hills, marks the ancient site of a temple of *Jupiter Summanus*.

6th. Perugia.] This is a large mountainous district, with a very mild climate. The chief town, Perugia, is situated in a fertile valley between the Tiber and the Lago di Perugia, and is said to contain 30,000 inhabitants, besides 30,000 scattered in the adjacent suburbs and environs. In the cathedral here are several paintings by Pietro Perugini, the teacher of Raphael. A university was founded in this city in 1307. It was the birth-place of the poet Pescuti, and the painter Pietro Perugini.—The cathedral of Assisio contains the tomb of St Francis of Assisi, the founder of the order of Franciscans, and is annually visited by many thousand pilgrims. Assisio was the birth-place of the poet Metastasio.—Foligno on the Topino, with 15,000 inhabitants, is an industrious town in which 3 annual fairs are held.—At Nocera very pretty wooden toys are still made. The place was famous for this kind of work so early as the time of Pliny.—Torricella is a small village near the lake of Perugia. It was between this and Camuccia that the celebrated battle in which Hannibal defeated the consul Flaminius, was fought; the field of battle is a small plain.

7th. Camerino.] The Appenines run through this little province, of which the chief place is Camerino, with 7,045 inhabitants. A college was founded here in 1727.

8th. Ascoli.] The western part of this delegation is intersected by the vanguards of the Appenines; the coast is flat. The climate is healthy, and the soil fertile. The chief town, Ascoli, has 12,350 inhabitants, and conducts a considerable trade. Its port is situated within a few miles of the mouth of the Tronto.

9th. Fermo.] The western part of this delegation is very mountainous. The chief town, Fermo, has 7,180 inhabitants.—The Porto di Fermo is a small fishing village.

10th. Macerata.] This is a very mountainous legation, with a healthy climate. Macerata, with 12,000 inhabitants, is the chief town.—Loretto has 7,693 inhabitants.—On a hill near the mouth of the Musone, is a large church in which stands the famous Santa Casa di Loretto, said to have been the dwelling of the Virgin Mary, and to have been carried by angels from Galilee in 1291 to Tersati in Dalmatia, from thence in 1292 to Italy in the neighbourhood of Recanati, and at last in 1295 to Loretto. This holy house stands in the centre of the church; it is covered with marble, and the interior is built of bricks and ebony; it is 30 feet long, 15 broad, and 18 high, and is richly ornamented with jewels. In former times this church was annually visited by above 100,000 pilgrims. —At Tolentino the peace of 1796 between the French republic and the pope was concluded.

11th. Ancona.] This is a mountainous country with a healthy climate. The chief town, Ancona, had 29,792 inhabitants in 1816, among whom were 5,000 Jews, who inhabit their own ghetto, and have a synagogue. It lies on the declivity of a hill, and stretches down towards the sea; the harbour is good, but is often filled with sand and mud. Nigh to the pier stands the magnificent triumphal arch of Trajan. Ancona was the birth-place of the poet Morullo, and the historian Tarcagnota.—Jeni is a town of 5,000 souls.

12th. Urbino and Pesaro.] This is a mountainous country; part of it was the ancient duchy of Urbino. The chief town, Urbino, with 11,582 inhabitants, was the birth-place of Raphael.—Fano, with 14,673 inhabitants, has a harbour for small vessels.—At Fossombrone the best silk in Italy is produced.—Pesaro, with 13,586 inhabitants, at the mouth of the Faglia, has a small harbour.—At Sinigaglia was held in ancient times towards the end of July one of the most animated fairs in Italy, which begins to revive again.—Near to the village of Faolo on the Metauro, is the Monte Asdrubal, where the Carthaginian general Asdrubal was defeated by the Romans.

13th. Forli.] This delegation lies at the foot of the Appenines; flattening towards the sea-shore it presents a large plain. The province is fertile, being part of the *Romagna* which was always considered as the storehouse of Italy. The inhabitants are more industrious than in the rest of the country. The chief town is Forli, with 15,520 inhabitants.—Rimini has 17,468 inhabitants, and some manufactures.—Catalica is the town to which the Catholic bishops who had been outvoted by the Arians in the council of Ravenna in 359 retired.

14th. Ravenna.] This delegation is an entire plain; the coasts are low, marshy, and unhealthy; but the climate improves in the interior, where the country rises towards Tuscany. The chief town Ravenna has

a population of 23,938 souls, but according to Balbi only 16,000. It is one of the most eminent cities in Italy. Several of the western emperors resided here, and after the fall of the occidental empire it became the residence of the Gothic kings, and after them of the Exarchs who in 752 were driven away by the Langobards. King Pepin in 755 gave the whole Exarchate to the pope. The town is surrounded by marshes which have been partly drained. The harbour, which was formerly near the town, has been nearly filled up by the alluvium deposited by the Adriatic, and Ravenna is now about three miles distant from the sea. Near the town is the field of battle where the celebrated French general Gaston di Foix conquered the Spanish troops and those of the pope. The emperors Honorius, Constantius and Valens III. are buried in Ravenna, and near them rest also the ashes of the great poet Dante. Faenza or *Faventia*, on the canal Zanelli, which extends from Lamone to Po di Primaro, has 14,000 inhabitants. A kind of stone-ware called *fajanze* is manufactured here.

15*th*. *Bologna*.] This country belongs to the plains of the Lombardy; the chain of the Appenines borders it only on the S. The interior is watered by numerous rivulets, and intersected by several canals which serve the purposes of irrigation, but hurt the salubrity of the air. A navigable canal extends from Casalecchio to Passo Segni, a distance of 11 leagues. The principal grain cultivated is rice. Hemp is also grown in great quantity, and the silk is excellent. The chief town Bologna has 63,420 inhabitants. It submitted itself in 1513 to the pope. The streets are narrow and crooked, but well-paved and clean; and the houses are pretty well-built. Among the curiosities of this place are the celebrated meridian line 220 feet long, drawn by Cassini on copper, and placed in the pavement of the church of St Petronio; and two old towers, the Torre degli Asinelli 307 feet high, which is so much inclined that it deviates 3½ feet from the perpendicular line, and that of Garisenda 144 feet high with an inclination of 8 feet 2 inches. A number of the wealthy nobility reside here. The university is a beautiful building erected by Vignola. It is said to have been founded in 425 by Theodosius the younger, and is consequently the most ancient in Europe. It is richly endowed, and was once considered as the *Mater Studiorum*. There are now about 70 professors, and 500 students; and a public library of 140,000 volumes, among which are some very rare manuscripts. There are several manufactories in the city of silk, paper, artificial flowers, and musical instruments. The sausages of Bologna are sent over all Europe. Bologna was the birth-place of the painters Caracci, Francisco Albano, Bolognese, Dominichino, and Guido Reni; and of the celebrated naturalists and mathematicians Beccari, Monti, Galvani, and Marsigli, besides 8 popes and 30 cardinals. Near the city is the celebrated church called Madonna di St Luca.—Cento with 4000 inhabitants was the birth-place of the painter Francisco Barbieri commonly called Guercino da Cento.

16*th*. *Ferrara*.] This delegation comprehends the greater part of the former duchy of Ferrara, of which the House of Este had the vicariate as early as the 9th century. When the principal line of this House became extinguished in 1597, duke Cæsar of a side line succeeded; but Clement VIII. took Ferrara from him in 1598 as a vacant fief of the church, and the dukes of Modena have in vain tried to establish their claims to it. It is a low marshy country, intersected by many arms of the Po, and numerous canals. The Valli di Comacchio here forms an enormous swamp overflown by the sea, and celebrated for the quantity of eels which are annually

caught here. The air is unwholesome; but the soil is very fertile. The chief town Ferrara is built on an arm of the Po in a low country; the air is unhealthy; the town is strongly fortified, and garrisoned by Austrian troops. Ferrara is reckoned among the finest towns in Italy; the streets are large and regular, and there are above 100 churches, 22 monasteries, 16 nunneries, and only 23,650 inhabitants. Under the government of the dukes of Este, who kept here one of the most brilliant courts of Italy, the population amounted to 80,000. The public library possesses many very valuable works, and the manuscripts of Ariosto, Tasso, Guarini, and others. The most melancholy feelings are excited by the hospital of St Anna where an inscription in marble points out the damp and obscure jail in which duke Alphonso II. made the divine Tasso languish out seven years! The remembrance of Ariosto is more pleasingly preserved, in the Piazza Ariostea named after him, and in his house which is covered with inscriptions to his honour. Ferrara was the birth-place of the poets Guarini, Tibaldi, Fulvio Testo, and Guido Bentivoglio; and also of several artists and painters.—Comacchio in the Valli di Comacchio is garrisoned by Austrian troops.

17*th*. *Benevento*.] This delegation lies insulated within the *Principata Ulteriore* of the kingdom of Naples. It comprehends the territory of the ancient duchy of Benevento, extending to about 90 square miles, with a population of 20,350 inhabitants. The principal productions are wheat, wine, and oil. This country in ancient times formed part of the territory of the Samnites. The Lombards erected it into a duchy in 571. The Normans having driven away its hereditary princes greatly oppressed the inhabitants, until the emperor Henry II. ceded the duchy to pope Leo IX. In 1769 it was seized by the king of Naples; and in 1806, Buonaparte erected it into a principality which he conferred upon M. de Talleyrand, who retained it till 1815, when the Congress of Vienna decreed its restitution to the pope. The king of Naples, however, still exercises some rights in this territory; such as the inspection of the schools, and the superintendence of the post. The chief town Benevento, the ancient *Beneventum*, is a fortified town, situated in a fertile plain, near the confluence of the Sabbato and the Calore. The *Porta Aurea* an ancient triumphal arch erected in honour of Trajan, is one of the finest remains of antiquity belonging to this city. The population presently amounts to 13,900 souls; but was much more considerable previous to the pestilence of 1656, and an earthquake which ravaged the city in 1688.

CHAP. XIII.—THE KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES.

Extent and Boundaries.] The kingdom of Naples, or of the Two Sicilies, consists of the continental territory of Naples and the island of Sicily. The continental portion is bounded by the Papal dominions on the N. and N.W.; and on all other sides by the Mediterranean, the Adriatic, and the straits of Messina by which it is separated from Sicily. It extends in length from S.E. to N.W., that is, from Cape Leuco to the mouth of the Tronto, 280 British miles; but if we measure it from Cape Spartivento to the mouth of the Tronto, it will be 360 miles. Its greatest breadth is 120 miles, in many places 80, and in some only 25 and 20 miles. It contains a superficies according to Balbi and Liechtenstern of 42,300 square miles.

History.] Naples was in the earliest times inhabited by tribes of Illyrian descent. Grecian colonists having settled on the coast, it received from them the name of *Græcia Magna.* After having subdued Samnium, the Romans accomplished the subjugation of the whole of Lower Italy by the conquest of Tarentum in 481, B. C. After the fall of the occidental empire, this part of Italy was seized by the Ostrogoths, whilst Sicily fell into the hands of the Vandals. In 554, Narses re-conquered both countries for the Grecian emperor Justinian I. whose successors incorporated them with the exarchate of Ravenna. The weakness of the exarchs and the politics of the court of Constantinople caused the establishment of the distinct principalities of Benevento, Naples, Salerno, Capua, and Tarentum, which successively became independent. The Greeks however, during the incessant incursions of the Arabians—who in the 9th century settled in Sicily—exercised important influence in Apulia of Sicily, which they only lost when the Germans in 967, under Otto I. made an inroad upon Naples in which they were followed by the Normans. The Greeks and Arabians were finally driven from all their possessions in these countries in 1035. The Normans united all the principalities which had hitherto subsisted in Naples with Sicily; and Roger II. in 1130 assumed the title of king of Naples and Sicily, or of the Two Sicilies,—a title which was only revived in 1816. The better to constitute or confirm his rights he received the kingdom as a fief from the pope Anaclet II., and since this time the Roman See has regarded Naples as a fief, and till very recently received an annual feu of a horse and a purse of ducats as an acknowledgment of liege duty from its rulers. With William II. Roger's male line became extinguished; but the right to both crowns was inherited from the House of Hohenstaufen by the emperor Henry VI. who had married the Norman princess Constantia. Conrad IV. in 1254, closed the line of Hohenstaufen on this throne. The pope taking advantage of Conradin's minority, gave the kingdom to Charles of Anjou, brother of king Louis IX. of France, who having taken the legitimate heir prisoner, caused him to be beheaded. Sicily having freed itself from the French dominion in 1282, by the insurrection of the Sicilian Vespers, as it is called, in which the Sicilians perpetrated a general massacre of all the French, came into the possession of king Peter of Arragon, and for some time the two kingdoms remained divided. But the line of the kings of Naples of the House of Anjou ended with Joanna I. who was murdered by Charles of Durazzo in 1382, and he, his son, and his grand-daughter Joanna II. successively occupied the throne in the midst of great troubles. The latter gave it by testament to king Alfonso V. of Arragon who maintained his right to it against Louis III. of Anjou. Under him and his successors arose the French-Italian wars for the possession of Naples. Ferdinand the Catholic conquered Naples; and his grandson Charles V. inherited the two Sicilies. For two centuries the united kingdom remained a Spanish province, but rebellion and internal dissensions constantly distracted the country, and the insurrection of Masaniello had nearly subverted the government. The peace of Utrecht which terminated the Spanish war of Succession, gave Naples to Austria, and Sicily to the House of Savoy; and when Spain in 1717 attacked Sardinia and Sicily, Austria made an exchange with Savoy of Sardinia for Sicily, and thus the kingdom of the two Sicilies became a part of the Austrian monarchy. In the war which arose in 1733 after the death of king Augustus II. of Poland, Spain again conquered the two Sicilies for the Spanish Infant Don Carlos, who being in 1759, by the

death of his brother, called to the Spanish throne, gave the two Sicilies to his third son Ferdinand IV. in 1759, under the condition that in future this kingdom was never to be again united with the Spanish crown. The French Revolution led the king of Naples into a war with France. In 1796 he obtained peace by paying a large contribution, but a new war having broken out, a French army entered Naples and forced the king to retire to Palermo in Sicily. In January 1799, the Parthenopeian republic—as it was called from the ancient name of the town of Naples, *Parthenope*—was founded at Naples. In the summer of 1799 the Russians and Austrians being successful in Upper Italy, Macdonald who commanded the French troops in Naples was compelled to retire, and the ancient order of things was again restored; but the battle of Marengo forced Naples to conclude a separate peace with France at Florence on the 28th of March 1801, in which the island of Elba, the principality of Piombino, and the Stato degli Presidii were ceded to France, and Naples agreed to shut its harbours against the British. When the war broke out again between France, Austria, and Russia, a treaty of neutrality was concluded between Naples and France in September 1805, according to which the French troops retired from Naples. But Napoleon embraced the pretext of Russian and British troops being allowed to land in the rear of marshal Massena to declare on the 27th of December 1805, that the reigning dynasty had forfeited the throne of Naples. Massena now occupied the Neapolitan States, and Ferdinand and his family fled to Sicily where he remained under the protection of the English till 1815. On the 30th of March 1806, Napoleon named his elder brother, Joseph, king of Naples, and settled the hereditary royalty on his male descendants. But after a reign of two years Joseph was called to the throne of Spain in 1808, and Napoleon's brother-in-law, Joachim Murat, named king of Naples. Murat might, perhaps, still have swayed the sceptre of Southern Italy had he acted with prudence. But his ambition of becoming sole king of Italy, fanned into flame by the sudden resuscitation of the phœnix at Elba, encouraged him first to temporize with the allies, and then suddenly to attack the unprepared Austrians. The scheme at first succeeded; but the Austrians recovering from their surprise, rallied their scattered troops, and in their turn attacked Murat and compelled him to make a hasty retreat towards his own dominions. In the meantime, a British squadron of three sail of the line, appeared before the capital, now destitute of troops, and threatened to bombard the city unless the Neapolitan fleet and naval stores were delivered up to the British. This was agreed to on the part of the queen, and two sail of the line afloat, and one on the stocks, with all the stores in the naval arsenal, were taken possession of by the British government for his majesty Ferdinand, king of the two Sicilies. On the 20th of May 1815, a military convention was signed, by virtue of which the whole kingdom of Naples,—the fortresses of Gaeta and Pescara, together with Ancona in the Papal states excepted—was surrendered to the allies, to be held by them for their lawful sovereign, Ferdinand IV. On the 23d, the Austrian army entered Naples, and the queen agreeably to a treaty concluded with her, was conveyed by the British fleet to Trieste, and allowed an asylum in the Austrian dominions. Murat effected his escape from Naples to Portici, 4 miles distant, where happily finding a small vessel, he went on board and arrived at Toulon. Soon after this event, Pescara and Ancona surrendered; and Gaeta, a place of great strength and defended by a numerous garrison commanded by French offi-

cers, was forced after a short defence to surrender to the united Austrian and British troops. Ferdinand returned to Naples in 1815, and solemnly promised a constitution to his subjects, but broke his word and even did away with the constitution given by the English to Sicily. Murat was but coldly received by Napoleon, and resided privately in the vicinity of Toulon, until the news of the battle of Waterloo rendered it no longer a safe neighbourhood. He then with difficulty escaped in a small open boat to Corsica. While here a retreat was offered to him in Austria on the condition that he would consent to live there merely as a private individual; but he had now got himself surrounded by a band of needy and desperate adventurers who prompted him to the mad enterprise of landing on the coasts of Calabria, with the view of recovering his kingdom. He was taken prisoner at Pizza, a few hours after his landing, and instantly subjected to trial by martial law for having attempted to excite rebellion and civil war. The sentence of death was passed, and executed upon him the same day. Ferdinand having been by the Congress of Vienna confirmed in the possession of Naples, 42 convents were immediately re-established according to a concordat with the pope, though the finances of the kingdom were in the greatest disorder. In 1820 the introduction of the Spanish constitution was demanded from the king, who consented to it, and he and the crown prince swore to it on the 7th of July. This proceeding dissatisfied the Holy Allies, and a congress was summoned at Troppau in autumn 1820, which in January was transported to Laybach. The congress of Laybach asserted what they knew to be false when they said the desire of the constitution was only that of a factious few; but as soon as the king found himself at Laybach he issued a decree abolishing the constitution he had sworn to. An Austrian army entered Naples in February 1821, almost without opposition: the constitutional government having suffered themselves to be amused by negotiations and messages from the congress, until the march of the Austrians allowed too little time for more effective measures to be taken. In a few weeks the Austrians were masters of Naples, and soon afterwards of Sicily also, upon which the king returned on the 15th of May to Naples, where all the blessings of an arbitrary government were restored. Ferdinand died in 1825, and was succeeded by his son Francis I.

Physical Features.] The Appenines form the principal mountain-ridge running through both the continental and inland part of this kingdom. In both, however, there are some mountains which seem to have no connection with the principal chain. The stratas of the Appenines are granite, gneiss, particularly mica slate, porphyry, jasper, and clay; the vanguards are mostly calcareous rock and serpentine; on the N.W. coast of the continent, and on the E. of the island, basalt, lava, and volcanic tufa present themselves. There are four volcanoes in activity, namely: Etna, Vesuvius, Stromboli, and one, or rather two, on the island of Volcano. There is also one mountain which throws out mud called Malacubba in Sicily, and also a wind volcano, the Dinnamare of Peloro, of all which details will be given in the topography.

Productions.] There is an indescribable richness of vegetation throughout this country. The corn, wine, and oil produced and exported turn the balance of commerce completely in favour of the kingdom. Agriculture however is carried on in the most wretched manner; the peasants are poor, and the soil is the property of great landlords, to whom they pay a rent mostly in kind. Those districts on which Nature has scattered her richest

bounties are the most neglected; in the mountainous and more rugged districts there is a little more industry. On the continent the peasants live mostly upon Indian corn and vegetables, reserving their wheat for exportation. Neither the inhabitants of Naples nor those of Sicily properly understand the management of wine; nevertheless the wines of Vesuvius and Etna, and of Syracuse and Ischia are good; and the oil of Puglia, though inferior to that of Lucca and Genoa, is an article in great demand. Silk is chiefly grown on the continent. There are numerous flocks of sheep kept which furnish a tolerably good wool. The horse is a noble animal here; but buffaloes and oxen are used in the plough. The Sicilian fisheries are important; they are principally directed to the taking of thunfish, anchovies, and corals. The country does not seem rich in metals; but even where there are appearances of them they are not wrought. A few iron-mines in the neighbourhood of Naples are the only ones which are wrought. Sulphur and alum are produced in great quantity; and marble, alabaster, lava, puzzolane, and salt are also wrought.

Manufactures and Commerce.] There are no manufactures of any consequence in this kingdom, which, though very populous, has scarcely enough of hands for the necessities of its agriculture. The commerce is entirely in the hands of the foreign merchants, who import what the country needs, and export what it produces. Though there are several excellent harbours, and the country is most favourably situated for commerce, the natives confine themselves to the coasting-trade. There are about 3,000 commercial vessels mostly feluccas and peluccas, but they very seldom venture into the open sea, on account of the pirates by whom even the coasts are infested, the government not being able to protect its own flag. The vessels of Tarentum sometimes go as far as Trieste; but no Sicilian vessels ever venture beyond the Columns of Hercules. The articles of exportation are corn, wine, oil, fruits, silk, sulphur, manure, fish, and salt. The commerce of the interior is facilitated by fairs and markets.

Population.] In 1465 the kingdom of Naples, exclusive of Sicily, contained a population of only 1,647,376 inhabitants, which in 1483 had fallen to 1,540,646. In 1505 the population had increased to 1,760,339; and in 1510 it had further risen to 1,824,070. In 1518, after the plague, it was 1,737,196. In 1561 it had increased to 3,318,547, and in 1595 to 3,624,501. From this period to 1669 there are no records extant; but in that year we find that owing to sundry visitations of the plague, and the oppression of the Spanish viceroys, who it is said from 1631 to 1644 sent into Spain 100,000,000 scudi (£23,750,000) the population had fallen to 2,718,370, being a reduction of 906,131. We have no official accounts from 1669 to 1734, when the population had again increased to 3,044,562. In 1765 it was 3,953,098; in 1773 it was 4,249,430; in 1791 it had risen to 4,925,381, and in 1805 to 4,988,679. In 1814 it had decreased to 4,956,693, in consequence of the war with France. In 1819 it had recovered to 5,034,191; and in 1824, when the last census was made, it was found to be 5,386,040, which, with 1,730,000 more for the island of Sicily, makes the total population of the whole kingdom at that period 7,116,040 M. Balbi supposes the population to be on the increase, and that in 1826 it amounted to 7,420,000; but although we are inclined to think this estimate of the population too high, still this kingdom is one of the most populous in Europe,—a proof that even the worst government cannot entirely depopulate a country so highly favoured by nature. There are however entire tracts of land, such as the plains of Puglia, desert and waste; whilst

others, as the *campagna felice*, and the neighbourhood of the capital, have 450 inhabitants on a square mile. With the exception of 75,000 Arnauts, a few Greeks, and some thousands of Jews, the whole Neapolitan nation are Italians, and speak a dialect of the Italian language varying according to the different provinces. The Arnauts reside on the eastern coasts of the continent, and in four districts of the former Val di Mazzara; they have preserved their national manners and customs, and even their language, and all belong to the united Greek church.

Religion.] The religion is the Roman Catholic; but though two-thirds of the whole property of the kingdom are in the hands of the ecclesiastics, the protestants live here under considerable toleration. No inquisition was ever established in Naples; and no bull of the pope can be published here without the royal assent. The king himself is head of the Neapolitan church, and has the title of *Beatissimo Padre.* In 1824, according to the official registers, there were in the whole of Naples, exclusive of Sicily, 27,612 secular priests—8,455 monks—and 8,155 nuns,—total in holy orders 44,222. In Sicily the proportion is much greater.

Literature.] The sciences and arts are in a most miserable state throughout this kingdom. There are no schools for the lower classes, and the few means of public instruction which exist are entirely in the hands of an ignorant clergy. There are three universities, namely, Naples, Palermo, and Catania, all of which are richly provided with splendid libraries and numerous professors, but law and natural philosophy are the only sciences decently taught in them. There is an academy of sciences at Naples, and several others in other towns. Naples is distinguished for the study of law and for music, particularly singing, whilst Sicily is the land of poetry; but her strains are seldom heard beyond her own shores. The Abbé Meli has written two volumes of interesting poetry in the Sicilian dialect. There are several public libraries mostly consisting of theological works, and a splendid collection of curiosities and pictures at Naples. The book trade is miserable. In 1821 and 1822 only 56 works were published. The greater part of the works which issue from the Sicilian presses relate to antiquities and the fine arts. In the capital of Naples there are 45 printing-offices, but on the whole island of Sicily only five.

Government.] The government of Naples is an hereditary monarchy in the male and female line of the present dynasty. The laws are contained in the *Codex Carolinus*, published in 1754. The kingdom of Naples for many ages laboured under the accumulated weight of the feudal system in its worst form, and of vice-regal administation. The former chained and enslaved nine-tenths of the population; whilst the latter—the most pernicious mode of government ever experienced—subjected the whole nation to systematic plunder. The accession of the late sovereign, weak and ignorant as he undoubtedly was, was a fortunate circumstance for Naples, as it delivered them from the tyranny of a viceroyalty. The operation of the feudal law has been checked, and the morals and manners of the common people improved. But the confusion which has always followed the successive conquests and recaptures of this unfortunate country, and the repeated disasters that of late years have befallen it, must have greatly impeded the amelioration of its government. The king exercises the legislative and executive power. The continental and insular parts of the kingdom have each a separate parliament; but they only enjoy the

single right of voting the taxes. In Sicily, in July 1812, a new constitution was drawn up, upon the model of that of Great Britain, and received in part the royal assent, at the hand of the hereditary prince, under the title of the vicar-general. But we are sorry to observe that this constitution has become little more than a dead letter.

Revenue, Army, &c.] The revenues of the kingdom, according to M. Balbi, amounted in 1826 to £3,464,000, and its debt to £20,619,000. In 1826 its armed force consisted of about 30,000 men; in war the amount could be greatly increased. Its strong places are Gaeta, Scilla, Amandea, Regio, Brindesi, Manfredonia, Capua, and Pescara. At the above period its navy consisted of two ships of the line, five frigates, and 20 armed vessels of less size.

Topography.] The two great divisions of this kingdom are Naples, or the *Domini al di qua del Faro,*—and Sicily, or the *Domini al di la del Faro.*

I. NAPLES.

Extent.] Hagemann estimated the surface of the Neapolitan continental territory at 1,519.5 German square miles, which Hassel found to agree pretty nearly with the chart of Bacler Dalbi. Rehfues estimates it at 1,444 German square miles, or 31,040 British square miles.

Physical Features.] The kingdom of Naples lies under the mildest sky of Europe,—occupies the most happy situation,—and has the richest and most fertile soil. The Appenines in the N.W. run into Naples as far as the district of Rapollo, where the ridge divides into two branches,—the one goes through the Basilicata into the Terra d'Otranto, and terminates at Capo di Leuca, the other branch runs through the three Calabrias to the southern point of Italy. From these main ridges side-branches run in several directions, partly connected with the principal chain, and partly forming separated groups; among the former are the chains of Sorrento and Cenide,—among the latter, the mountains of Gargano in Puglia, which cover a surface of 600 geographical square miles, the Monte Barbaro and Mount Vesuvius near Naples, and the Volture in Puglia. These mountains are not very well-known; but their basis is almost generally granite and calcareous rock; the latter is predominant in the neighbourhood of Naples. The principal capes on the Tyrrhenian sea are: Capo di Gaeta, Ancini, Della Campanella, D'Orso, Licosa, Della Asiarolli, Palinuro, Centraro, Zambrone, Vaticano, and Dell Armi; on the Ionian sea are: Spartivento, the most extreme point of land, Rizguto, Delle Colonne, Dell Alice, and Di Leuca; and on the Adriatic: Capo d'Otranto, Cavallo, the Punta Rossa, and Punta Saracina.

Bays, Rivers, and Lakes.] The seas which wash the coast form several considerable gulfs. The Tyrrhenian sea which is connected with the Ionian sea by the straits, or the Faro of Messina, forms the bays of Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro, and St Eufemia; the Ionian sea forms the bays of Squillace and Tarento; and the Adriatic, the bay of Manfredonia. All the rivers descend from the Appenines, which run almost through the middle of the country, and have consequently but a short course. The principal are the Garigliano, the Volturno, the Silaro, and the Crati. There are no canals except a few for the purpose of irrigation. Lakes are numerous, but there is only one of considerable size, the Lago di Cellano, or Fucino in Abruzzo, which is about 15 miles long and 9 broad, and which

receives three small rivers, though it has no visible outlet. Among the smaller lakes we remark: the Lago d'Agnano between the mountains of Astroni and Pausilippo, which is frequently observed to be agitated by subterranean air, and is constantly in motion, although it has no visible outlet or inlet; the Lago di Fondi, the Lago di Licola, and the Lago Lardenosu. There are numerous mineral springs.

Climate and Productions.] A perpetual spring seems to reign in this beautiful region. The winter is scarcely ever so cold as a cool Scotch September, and vegetation is never interrupted. In the depth of winter the fields are green, the orange-trees in flower, the balmy air is filled with the fragrance of blooming shrubs and flowers, and the sea ever reflects a dark blue sky; but from the end of May to the beginning of September, the sun consumes the vegetation with his almost vertical rays, and the ever cloudless sky yields no refreshing moisture to the languishing earth; even the sea-breeze comes laden with the fiery winds of Africa, and conveys no relief to exhausted nature. In the Abruzzo, where the highest summits of the Appennines rise, the air is cooler, and the tops of the mountains are in winter covered with snow which sometimes remains upon them from October to May. Some districts are infected with the exhalations of mephitic swamps, which seem to increase every year, as districts which were formerly accounted healthy, are now deserted on account of the pestilential air. A great part of Puglia is a desert, on which during winter only innumerable flocks of sheep are fed. The productions are as abundant, as they are various and valuable. Corn of all kinds, particularly wheat and Indian corn, vegetables, all the costly southern fruits, vines, olives, wood, medicinal plants, soda, and sage, (*salvia* L.) are every where raised. Among the productions of the animal kingdom are horses, mules, asses, cattle, buffaloes, wolves, game, fish, silk-worms, and bees; also many pernicious insects and locusts, vipers, serpents, and tarantulas.

Inhabitants.] The total population of the continental part of the Neapolitan dominions amounted to 5,386,040 souls in 1824. The people have many common features of character with the other Italians; they are lively, cheerful, and witty, but oppressed by the nobility and clergy. The dialect is somewhat like that of Tuscany. The Neapolitans are accused of being very avaricious and very lazy. The lower classes are plunged in the deepest ignorance; the inhabitants of the mountains and the Calabrians exhibit more activity and resolution than the rest, and above all when they are acting as banditti. A very numerous class in the capital are the *Lazzaroni*,—people who have neither home nor fixed occupation, but who, favoured by the benign climate, spend the day in the street, and the night under the porches of the palaces or churches. Necessity alone forces them to engage in any labour, and as soon as they have earned enough to buy a few slices of melon, or some maccaroni, they relapse into their former indolence, until hunger forces them again to exert themselves. The dress of the lower classes is miserable but very picturesque; it principally consists of a brown cloak thrown over the shoulders in graceful folds. The higher classes are dressed in the French fashion. The lower classes seldom taste butcher-meat; fruit, onions, vegetables, and fish, are their common food. The pleasures and amusements of the Neapolitans are the same as in the rest of Italy, but they seem still more fond of gaming. The Arnauts who live in Calabria, Basilicato, and some other provinces, are a fine race of men; their eyes are brown, large, and sparkling, their hair black, and complexion dark. Their language is the

modern Greek, with a mixture of Latin, Italian, French, and Slavonian words; they rarely intermarry with the Italians. Their priests are called *Calojeri*, and are allowed to marry.

Topography.] Naples is divided into four large districts: namely, Campania, Puglia, Abruzzo, and Calabria, which are now subdivided into 15 provinces.

1st and 2d. The Provinces of Napoli and Terra di Lavoro.] The N.W. of this district is one of the finest and richest countries in Europe. The E. is quite flat, with the exception of one eminence, Mount Vesuvius.

Mount Vesuvius.] This volcano rises in a pyramidal form from the large plain which runs from Capua to its foot, and is separated by deep valleys from the mountains Ottajano and Somma, which seem to have formerly belonged to the same mass. On its summit is a large plain, in the midst of which lies the crater from which rises a continual smoke, and which often bursts out into dreadful irruptions. During that of the 25th of December 1813, a new crater was formed. The most remarkable eruptions were those of A.D. 79, by which Herculaneum and Pompeii were destroyed, of A.D. 203, 472, 512, 685, 993, 1036, 1306, 1631, and 1730, when the summit of the mountain rose considerably higher, and became more pointed, and those of 1760 and 1779. In the two last centuries indeed, there have been few years in which Vesuvius has not made some irruptions; yet, notwithstanding all the devastations which the torrents of lava have caused, the foot of the mountain is populous, and its sides are covered with vines, and fruit trees. Sir William Hamilton is of opinion, that the Somma of the moderns is the true Vesuvius of the ancients. This mountain is situated within 6 miles of Naples. The ascent is gradual, extending to the length of 3 miles. Upon the W. and S. the mountain presents a bleak and barren prospect, being covered with cinders, ashes, and lava; the other sides are cultivated almost to the top.[11]

[11] The first eruption of Vesuvius of which we have any account, is that which happened in A. D. 79, and in which the elder Pliny lost his life. It has been supposed, however, and with much probability, that this eruption was by no means the first, since the streets of Herculaneum and of Pompeii—cities which were then buried under the matter ejected from the mountain—are paved with lava. During an eruption which took place in 1538, and which seems to have been very violent, a hill was formed of the ashes thrown out of the mountain, of which the height was a quarter of a mile, and the circumference 3 miles. Of these eruptions, however, the details which we have received are very imperfect; and our accounts of those which have since taken place might have been somewhat similar, had not Sir William Hamilton, ambassador at the court of the king of Sicily, examined the mountain with scientific care, and enjoyed the opportunity of observing a violent eruption which happened during his residence in that country. Sir William began his observations upon Vesuvius in 1766. In August 1779, an eruption broke out with the greatest violence, and was described by Sir William with much minuteness. The description has often been quoted; and as it contains a very picturesque account of a very remarkable appearance in nature, the reader may be interested by the following extract from Sir William Hamilton's account.

"During the whole month of July, the mountain continued in a state of fermentation. Subterraneous explosions and rumbling noises were heard: quantities of smoke were thrown up with great violence, sometimes with red-hot stones, scoria, and ashes; and towards the end of the month these symptoms increased to such a degree, as to exhibit in the night time, the most beautiful fire-works that can be imagined.

"On Thursday the 5th of August the volcano appeared most violently agitated; a white and sulphureous smoke issued continually and impetuously from its crater, one puff seeming to impel another; so that a mass of them was soon accumulated, to appearance, four times the height and size of the volcano itself. These clouds of smoke were exceedingly white, so that the whole resembled an immense accumulation of bales of whitish cotton. In the midst of this very white smoke, vast quantities of stones, scoria, and ashes, were thrown up to the height of 2000 feet; and a quantity of liquid lava, seemingly very heavy, was lifted up just high enough to clear the rim of the crater, and take its way down the sides of the mountain. This lava, having run violently for some hours, suddenly ceased, just before it had reached the cultivated parts

The magnificent plain of Capua lies over a subterranean fire, and owes its fertility to the volcanic quality of the soil. The steam baths, the sulphurous lakes, and grottoes in this volcanic region are remarkable. In the neighbourhood of Puzzuoli, the whole soil consists of a ferruginous lava

of the mountain, near four miles from the spot whence it issued. The heat, all this day, was intolerable, at the towns of Somma and Ottaiano; and was sensibly felt at Parma and Lauri, which are much farther off. Reddish ashes fell so thick on the two former, that the air was darkened, so that objects could not be distinguished at the distance of ten feet. Long filaments of vitrified matter, like spear-glass, were mixed, and fell with these ashes; several birds in cages were suffocated, and the leaves of the trees in the neighbourhood of Somma were covered with white and very corrosive salt.

"About twelve at night, on the 7th, the fermentation of the mountain seemed greatly to increase. Our author was watching the motions of the valcano, from the mole at Naples, which has a full view of it. Several gloriously picturesque effects had been observed from the reflection of the deep red fire, within the crater of Vesuvius, and which mounted high among those huge clouds on the top of it; when a summer storm, called in that country a *tropea*, came on suddenly, and blended its heavy watery clouds with the sulphureous and mineral ones, which were already, like so many other mountains, piled upon the top of the volcano. At this moment a fountain of fire was shot up to an incredible height, casting so bright a light that the smallest objects were clearly distinguishable at any place within six miles or more of Vesuvius. The black stormy clouds, passing swiftly over, and at times covering the whole or a part of the high columns of fire, at other times clearing away and giving a full view of it, with the various tints produced by its reverberated light on the white clouds above, in contrast with the pale flashes of forked lightning that attended the *tropea*, formed such a scene as no power of art can express. One of his Sicilian majesty's gamekeepers, who was out in the fields near Ottaiano, whilst the storm was at its height, was surprised to find the drops of rain scald his face and hands; a phenomenon probably occasioned by the clouds having acquired a great degree of heat, in passing through the abovementioned columns of fire.

"On the 8th, the mountain was quiet till towards six o'clock in the evening, when a great smoke began to gather over its crater; and about an hour after a rumbling subterraneous noise was heard in the neighbourhood of the volcano: the usual showers of red-hot stones and scoria began and increased every instant. The crater viewed through a telescope, seemed much enlarged by the violence of last night's explosions, and the little mountain on the top was entirely gone. About nine o'clock a most violent report was heard at Portici and its neighbourhood. It shook the houses to such a degree as made the inhabitants run out into the streets. Many windows were broken, and walls rent by the concussion of the air on this occasion, though the noise was but faintly heard at Naples. In an instant a fountain of liquid transparent fire began to rise, and gradually increasing, arrived at last at the amazing height of 10,000 feet and upwards. Puffs of smoke, as black as can possibly be imagined, succeeded one another hastily, and accompanied the red-hot, transparent, and liquid lava, interrupting its splendid brightness here and there by patches of the darkest hue: within these puffs of smoke, at the very moment of emission, a bright but pale electrical fire was observed playing briskly about in zigzag lines. The wind was south-west, and, though gentle, was sufficient to carry these puffs of smoke out of the column of fire· and a collection of them by degrees formed a black and extensive curtain behind it; in other parts of the sky it was perfectly clear, and the stars bright. The fiery fountain, of such immense magnitude, and the dark ground just mentioned, made the finest contrast imaginable; and the blaze of it reflected from the surface of the sea, which was at that time perfectly smooth, added greatly to this sublime view.

"The lava, mixed with stones and scoria, having risen to the amazing height already mentioned, was partly directed by the winds towards Ottaiano, and partly falling still red-hot and liquid, upon the top of Vesuvius, covered its whole cone, part of that of the summit of Somma, and the valley between them. The falling matter, being nearly as inflamed and vivid as that which was continually issuing fresh from the crater, formed with it one complete body of fire, which could not be less than two miles and a half in breadth, and of the extraordinary height above mentioned, cast a heat to the distance of at least six miles round. The brushwood on the mountain of Somma was soon in a blaze, and the flame of it being of a different colour from the deep red of the matter thrown out by the volcano, and from the silvery blue of the electrical fire, still added to the contrast of this most extraordinary scene.

"The black cloud, increasing greatly, once bent towards Naples, and threatened the city with speedy destruction; for it was charged with electrical fire, which kept constantly darting about in bright zigzag lines. This fire, however, rarely quitted the cloud, but usually returned to the great column of fire whence it proceeded; though once or twice it was seen to fall on the top of Somma, and set fire to some dry grass and bushes. Fortunately the wind carried back the cloud just as it reached the city, and had begun to occasion great alarm. The column of fire, however, still continued,

which can be used as a cement, but is very fertile. The Solfatorra, a kind of cave 1,000 feet long and 1,246 broad, of which the interior is always burning, seems to be connected with Mount Vesuvius; the swamp of S. Filippo, formerly the Lago Luccino,—and the lake of Avernus, which for-

and diffused such a strong light that the most minute objects could be discovered at the distance of ten miles or more from the mountain. Mr Morris informed our author, that at Sorrento, which is twelve miles distant from Vesuvius, he read the titlepage of a book by that volcanic light.

"All this time the miserable inhabitants of Ottaiano were involved in the utmost distress and danger by the showers of stones which fell upon them, and which had the eruption continued for a longer time, would most certainly have reduced their town to the same situation as Herculaneum and Pompeii. The mountain of Somma, at the foot of which the town of Ottaiano is situated, hides Vesuvius from the view of its inhabitants, so that till the eruption became considerable, it was not visible to them. On Sunday night, when the noise increased, and the fire began to appear above the mountain of Somma, many of the inhabitants flew to the churches, and others were preparing to quit the town, when a sudden and violent report was heard; soon after which they found themselves involved in a thick cloud of smoke and ashes; a horrid clashing noise was heard in the air, and presently fell a vast shower of stones, and large pieces of scoria, some of which were of the diameter of seven or eight feet, which must have weighed more than 100 pounds before they were broken, as some of the fragments which Sir William Hamilton found in the streets, still weighed upwards of 60 pounds. When these large vitrified masses either struck one another in the air, or fell on the ground, they broke in many pieces, and covered a large space of ground, with vivid sparks of fire, which communicated their heat to every thing that was combustible. These masses were formed of the liquid lava, the exterior parts of which were become black and porous by cooling in their fall through such a vast space; whilst the interior parts, less exposed, retained an extreme heat, and were perfectly red.

"In an instant the town and country about it was on fire in many parts, for there were several straw huts in the vineyards, which had been erected for the watchmen of the grapes; all of which were burnt. A great magazine of wood in the heart of the town was all in a blaze; and had there been much wind, the flames must have spread universally, and all the inhabitants would have been burned in their houses; for it was impossible for them to stir out. Some who attempted it with pillows, tables, chairs, tops of wine casks, &c. on their heads, were either knocked down, or soon driven back to their close quarters, under arches, and in the cellars of their houses. Many were wounded, but only two persons died of their wounds. To add to the horror of the scene, incessant volcanic lightning whisking about the black cloud that surrounded them, and the sulphureous smell and heat would scarcely allow them to draw their breath. In this dreadful situation they remained about 25 minutes, when the volcanic storm ceased all at once, and Vesuvius remained sullen and silent.

"Sometime after the eruption had ceased, the air continued greatly impregnated with electrical matter. The duke of Cottosiano told our author, that having, about half an hour after the great eruption had ceased, held a leaden bottle, armed with a pointed wire out at his window at Naples, it soon became considerably charged. But whilst the eruption was in force, its appearance was too alarming to allow one to think of such experiments. He was informed also by the prince of Montemiletto, that his son, the duke of Popoli, who was at Montemiletto the 8th of August, had been alarmed by the shower of cinders that fell there; some of which he had sent to Naples weighing two ounces; and that stones of an ounce weight had fallen upon an estate of his ten miles farther off. Montemiletto is about 30 miles from the volcano. The Abbe Cagliani also related, that his sister, a nun in a convent at Manfredonia, had written to inquire after him, imagining that Naples must have been destroyed, when they, at so great a distance, had been alarmed by a shower of ashes, which fell on the city at eleven o'clock at night, so much as to open all the churches and go to prayers. As the great eruption happened at nine o'clock, these ashes must have travelled an 100 miles in the space of two hours.

"Nothing could be more dismal than the appearance of Ottaiano after this eruption. The houses were unroofed, half buried under the black scoria and ashes; all the windows towards the mountain were broken, and some of the houses themselves burned; the streets choked up with ashes; in some narrow places not less than four feet thick, and a few of the inhabitants, who had just returned, were employed in clearing them away, and piling them up in hillocks, to get to their ruined houses. The palace of the prince of Ottaiano is situated on an eminence above the town, and nearer the mountain. The steps leading up to it were deeply covered; the roof was totally destroyed, and the windows broken, but the house itself, being strongly built, had not suffered much.

"An incredible number of fragments of lava were thrown out during the eruption, some of which were of immense magnitude. The largest measured by Sir William Hamilton was 108 feet in circumference, and 17 in height. This was thrown at least a quarter of a mile clear of the mouth of the volcano. Another, 66 feet in circumfer-

merly exhaled so strong sulphurous vapours that birds flying over it fell down suffocated,—the celebrated grotto Del Cane, near the lake of Agnano,—the Sudaltorii di S. Germane, near the same lake,—and the famous grottoes under the hills of Pausilippo, are all proofs of the activity of the fearful element which is here raging to break forth from its prison.

City of Naples.] Naples, the ancient Parthenope, 'the metropolis of a ruined Paradise,' as it has been called, is situated at the bottom of a gulf, 3 days' journey from the frontiers, and 5 from Rome. It is built in the form of an amphitheatre, sloping to the sea from the hills. Although, in point of architectural appearance it is inferior to modern Rome; yet, in general, the private houses are better built, and the streets are broader and better paved. It is surrounded by mountains and the sea; and nothing can surpass the beauty of its bay. Naples is the most opulent and best peopled city of Italy. In 1824 it contained 349,190 inhabitants, of which 165,015 were males, and 184,175 females; 55,283 males were under 14 years, and 51,957 females were under 12 years; 45,853 males above the age of 14 were unmarried, as were 56,172 women above the age of 12. The total number of married persons was 115,034; the number of widowers was 6,352, the widows 18,529. Of the population of the city 1,751 were secular clergy, 610 were monks, and 827 were nuns; persons connected with the church in different capacities, and paid by government, 7,600; civil officers of government in the various departments, about 2,000; other pensioners of favour (di grazia), 2,000; persons whose names were in the civil list, 9,450; judges, advocates, and others connected with the courts of law, 1,627; paupers provided for in different institutions, 7,867; artificers and tradesmen of all descriptions, including their families, 114,519. The number of births in 1823 was 14,172, of which 1,897 were illegitimate. The number of deaths was 12,212, of which 3,308 took place in the hospitals! The marriages in the same year were, 3,130. Six strong castles defend the city, and the entrance of the port is protected by an excellent mole or jetty. It is admirably situated for commerce; and yet trade is in a languish-

ence, and 19 in height, being nearly of a spherical figure, was thrown out at the same time, and lay near the former. This last had the marks of being rounded, nay almost polished, by continual rolling in torrents or on the sea-shore. Our author conjectures that it might be a spherical volcanic salt, such as that of 45 feet in circumference, mentioned by M. de St Fond, in his Treatise of extinguished Volcanoes. A third of 16 feet in height and 92 in circumference was thrown much farther, and lay in the valley between Vesuvius and the Hermitage. It appeared also from the large fragments which surrounded this mass, that it had been much larger while in the air." On the 14th of March 1828, a new orifice, about 15 feet in circumference, was opened in the crater of Mount Vesuvius, on the eastern side, from which issued an immense quantity of smoke, in the form of a globe; this burst with a tremendous explosion, and scattered around a quantity of boiling liquid. After some days these explosions ceased, but the new aperture continued to discharge a great deal of smoke, and occasionally some flames. On the 17th and 18th these phenomena were renewed with increased force, the detonations became more frequent, and a slight flow of lava was perceptible. It was observed that, on the 20th, the new opening was increased to 60 feet, and that the matter ejected piled round it in a pyramidical form to the height of 50 feet; that stones were occasionally thrown up into the air; and that the explosions were continued at intervals of 10 minutes. After a variety of explosions, a tremendous shock on the 22d, forced the three apertures into one, and a column of smoke and ashes arose from it, and presented to the city of Naples the appearance of a pine tree of gigantic dimensions. The rays of the sun reflecting against it, presented one of the most extraordinary spectacles ever seen. Stones were thrown up in great numbers, and one among the rest, of immense dimensions, which was thrown over the side of the crater, and rolled down the mountain. The violence of the eruption began to diminish at three o'clock, and the wind having changed, caused the volcanic column to incline towards Ottaiano, and it began gradually to diminish in size. At five o'clock the summit of Vesuvius displayed only a small cloud of smoke.

ing condition. The manufactures of silk and woollen date from the reign of Ferdinand I. of Arragon; and these with the native products form the chief articles of exportation. Though Naples is not one-third of the size of London, yet many of the streets are more crowded than the Strand; and a great part of the poorer classes are obliged to pass the night as well as the day in them for want of habitations. No city in the world contains, in proportion to its size, so great a number of persons who contribute little or nothing to the wealth of the community. The number of priests, monks, fiddlers, lawyers, nobility, footmen, and lazzaroni, or vagabonds, is immense. If the feudal bondage under which Naples has groaned for centuries were abolished,—the enormous wealth and numbers of lazy ecclesiastics were reduced,—and the attention of government directed to the introduction of useful manufactures and the encouragement of commerce and agriculture, we would hear as little of the lazzaroni of Naples as of the lazzaroni of London. For even in that latter capital, more amply provided as it is with the means of employment and consequently of subsistence for the poorer classes of its inhabitants than any city in Europe, if we are to believe Dr Colquhoun, there are upwards of 20,000 persons who rise every morning without employment and rely for maintenance on the accidents of the day. The lower classes among the Neapolitans are most dexterous swimmers and divers. If a stranger goes on the water for a little excursion, he will be followed by dozens of these wretched creatures, in the hope that 'sua eccellenza' will chuck them a few *soldi*. They are also adroit in catching shell-fish, of which there is a great variety in the bay; they are called *frutte di mare*, and are found attached to the rocks, and in very deep water. It is astonishing the length of time these *pescatori* will remain under water; but such violent pressure on the lungs shortly produces affections of the chest, and finally death; yet, with the certainty that they are to be prematurely cut off, they persist in this arduous employment, which after all earns them but a scanty subsistence. The nobility are excessively addicted to show and splendour; 100 of these are called princes, and a still greater number are denominated dukes. Six or seven of them have estates from £10,000 to £13,000 a year. A considerable number have possessions to half that amount; and many not more than £1000 or £2000 annually. The inferior nobility are much poorer; many counts and marqueses not having above £300 or £400 a year of paternal estate, and not a few enjoying a title without any estate whatever to support it. Naples contains above 300 churches, which, though inferior to those of modern Rome for elegance of architecture and correctness of design, yet surpass them in rich jewels, and in the quantity of ornaments. The chief of them is the cathedral of St Januarius, the patron saint of the city, whose aid is zealously invoked whenever the city is apprehended to be in danger from an eruption of Vesuvius, his image being at such times carried through the city in solemn procession. Naples was the birth-place of Giamb. Marino, Grac. Sannazaro, Ang. di Costanza, Porta, Borrelli, Filangieri, Bernini, and Pergolese. The Bay of Naples is one of the finest in the world, being nearly 30 miles in diameter, and shut out by the island of Capri from the Mediterranean, while three-fourths of it is sheltered by a circuit of woods and mountains. Naples is 110 miles S.E. of Rome; 104 N.E. of Palermo; 217 S.E. of Florence; and 300 S. by E. of Venice. Lat. 40° 50′ 15″ N. Long. 14° 17′ 30″ E.

Towns and Antiquities.] Our limits will not allow us to enter into

full details concerning the site, present state, and population of the numerous cities and towns of his Neapolitan majesty's Italian dominions. Not a more classical spot occurs in all the range of geographical research than the south of Italy. The road from Naples to Puzzuoli instead of crossing the summit of the hill is cut directly through it. The subterranean gallery is nearly half-a-mile in length, and was considered ancient even in the time of Seneca and Strabo. It was enlarged by Alfonso I At the entrance of the passage, but elevated much above it, is the contested tomb of Virgil, a square low-arched, and but for its name nowise remarkable ruin. The beauty of the spot as well as the poet's name, has attracted many of our own countrymen to choose Pausilippo for their last abode, and tombstones of English are gathering fast around the ashes of Virgil Puzzuoli has a harbour, and many Roman antiquities still testify the former grandeur of the city. The red sand known under the name of *puzzolano* earth is procured here.—Sorrento, a small town in a charming country covered with orange and lemon groves, was the birth-place of the illustrious poet Torquato Tasso.—At Portici, a town of 5,208 inhabitants, is a magnificent royal castle in which is one of the richest cabinets of antiquities in the world, collected from the ruins of Herculaneum, upon which the town of Portici is partly built.[13]—At Torre del Greco a sea-coast town with 15,760 inhabitants, who are mostly fishermen and sailors, the excellent *Vino Greco* is grown.—Torre della Nunciata is famous for the manufac-

[13] Herculaneum, which had long existed as a considerable town, was in A. D. 79 completely overwhelmed by an eruption from Vesuvius. The ashes and lava by which it was at first covered received many additions, and the remains of the ancient city are now buried about 24 feet below the present surface. The lava and ashes have assumed the appearance of a grey brittle stone. It was well known that Herculaneum had been buried by an eruption, but the precise situation of the city had long been forgotten, when in 1713 some labourers, digging for a well, discovered it by striking on a statue which stood on the benches of the theatre. The prince of Elbœuf extracted many statues and other curiosities, and sent them to France. When Charles, infanta of Spain, ascended the throne of Naples, he prosecuted the search with more success than any who had hitherto attempted it. He caused galleries to be formed to the principal buildings, and made some of the edifices to be completely cleared. The acquisitions made from this ruined city have been very extensive, and have given us a complete knowledge of many things relating to the domestic economy of the ancients, of which we should have otherwise remained for ever ignorant. The objects extracted consist of statues, busts, altars, inscriptions, and other productions of the fine arts. A complete collection of the various instruments used by the ancients, such as musical instruments, chirurgical instruments, and instruments for domestic purposes have also been obtained. Among the curiosities which have been brought from the ruins, and deposited in the palace at Naples, may be mentioned vases, lamps, basins, chandeliers, instruments used in sacrifice, mirrors of polished metal, and coloured glass, kitchen utensils, among which are copper pans lined with silver, corn, bread, fish, wine, oil, and flour, and a lady's toilet, with rings, thimbles, combs, ear-rings, and paint. Many pieces of fresco paintings have been taken from the walls, and fitted into frames for preservation; pieces of the Mosaic with which the floors are paved have likewise been taken out. Medals have been found, but few of them are accounted rare. The busts are very numerous, but unfortunately it cannot be discovered what persons the greater part of them may represent. Many of the statues are said by the best judges to be exquisite performances. But the paintings are represented as being much inferior in excellence to the statues. During the search which was made in the ruins of Herculaneum, a considerable quantity of manuscripts was discovered, and the learned fancied that they were about to retrieve many of those classics, of which the loss had been so severely felt and so frequently deplored. When they began to examine them, however, their hopes were considerably depressed. The rolls of parchment had been so hardened by the heat of the lava, that it was impossible to unroll them without the utmost perseverance, and even after they had been unrolled, new labour became necessary in adjusting the several pieces to each other; and such was the obscurity of the writing in many places, that much learning and considerable ingenuity were requisite to decipher the true reading. A priest discovered a mode of unrolling the parchment; but after all very little has been done towards the restoring of lost classics. A few short treatises have been published, but they are in themselves of very little importance, and remarkable chiefly for having been dug from the ruins of Herculaneum.

ture of maccaroni. Galanti says 500 cwts a day are made here.—Baia a castle in the bay of Naples, not far from Cape Misene, was formerly the favourite place of resort of the rich Romans who had magnificent villas here. The poet has sung, "*nullus in orbe sinus Baiis prælucet amœnis,*" but his boast is now a heap of ruins. Near to Baia are the lakes of Lucinus and Avernus, with the hot-bath of Nero and the ruins of several temples. In the neighbourhood are the remains of the Æolian city *Cumæ*, now a pestilential desert, with the two lakes Fusaro and Licola, and a cave which is pretended to be that of the sybil of Cumæ.

Islands.] Capri is an island in the bay of Naples of about 10 square miles of surface. It consists of two high mountains united by a valley at the height of 600 feet above the sea. The surrounding rocks are of a tremendous height; the valley is very fertile and well-cultivated. It produces a quantity of wine and oil. There are 3,614 inhabitants on this island, whose principal occupations are the catching of quails, fishing, and coral-fishing. In the time of the Roman empire Capri was one of the favourite places of the rich Romans, and magnificent palaces were built here by Augustus and Tiberius.—Ischia is an island on the W. side of the bay of Naples containing about 25 square miles. It is of volcanic origin, and luxurious fertility. The population amounts to 30,000.—Procita or Procida is an island between Ischia and Capo Miseno, of about 7 square miles of surface. It is very fertile and rich in oil, wine, and fruits; and has about 12,518 inhabitants.

2*d. Terra di Lavoro.*] Capua on the Volturno is the chief town of this district. It has about 8,000 inhabitants. The air is unhealthy in summer, and the water is very bad. The modern town does not indicate the site of ancient Capua, which was not here but near the village of Santa Maria.—Aquino, a small town on the Melfa, is said to have been the birth-place of the poet Juvenal and of the celebrated Thomas Aquinas. Gaeta is a strongly fortified town on a neck of land partly forming the bay of Gaeta. It has a population of 15,000. The Constable of Bourbon is buried here, and also the prince of Hesse-Homburg, who defended this town against the French troops in 1806.—Vendotena is an island in the bay of Gaeta, with a population of 400 persons, who settled here in 1796.—Ponza is the most considerable of a group of several islands off the coast of this province. It has about 750 inhabitants. Aversa was built by the valiant Normans, and cannot boast any honours derived from antiquity. It may be considered as new on this classic ground, where you find at every step Phœnician, Greek, or Roman monuments, and where every corner of ground attests to the foreign visitor the ancient glories of Italy; but now this place induces him to turn aside from the road which leads him towards the majestic ruins of Capua, to contemplate the progress of philosophy and humanity, in the Royal Hospital for the insane,—an establishment spoken of with the highest and most deserved praise.

3*d. The province of Principato Citeriore.*] The greater part of this coast-district is mountainous. The soil is fertile in the valleys. There are two bays, that of Salerno on the S.W., and of Policastro on the E. The principal river is the Silaro. The staple products are oil, wine, and fruit. The population is considered more than ordinarily dissolute. This is the ancient Lucania. Salerno, the chief town of the province, has about 11,000 inhabitants. There was anciently a famous school of medicine here, the *Schola Salernitana.* The university was in 1817 converted into a lyceum.

Amalfi with 2,776 inhabitants was the birth-place of the inventor of the compass, Gioja, and of the famous rebel Masaniello.—Near Capaccio was the celebrated Greek city *Pæstum*, of which the walls, two temples, and one amphitheatre, are still remaining. Cilento has for many ages been famed for its delicious figs, which were known to the Romans under the name of *caricæ*.

4*th*. *The Province of Principato Ulteriore.*] The Appenines run from the N.E. through this province, which is mountainous and intersected with valleys and rivers. Among the valleys the most remarkable is the famous Val di Gorgano, where in A. M. 3631, the Samnites forced the vanquished Romans to pass under the *Furcæ Caudinæ*. The principal rivers are the Ofanto and the Calore. The population of this province in 1824, amounted to 405,000 souls. They are naturally a lively race; but the extreme misery of the lower classes and the wretched government give occasion to many crimes, and no where even in Italy, is the propensity for theft more strikingly displayed. The principal productions are corn, wine, and fruit. Avellino with 13,467 inhabitants is the capital. It is situated at the foot of Monte Vergine, and was the ancient *Abellinum Hirpinorum*. A great quantity of chesnuts and filberts (*abellinæ*) are grown here.—In the neighbourhood of Frigento is the valley of Ansonto so famous in the time of the Romans; it is formed by the Fredene, and exhibits traces of an extinguished volcano.—At Torella, in the neighbourhood of the *Campi Taurasini*, the Romans conquered king Pyrrhus.

5*th*. *The Province of Molise.*] Molise or Samnio is an inland district. The chain of Matese, one of the highest ridges of the Appenines, bounds this province on one side. The summits of these mountains are always covered with snow and ice; and there is upon one of them a lake more than a mile in circumference. The principal rivers are the Biferno and the Tammaro. In 1791, the population was 209,675; in 1824, it was 234,000. This province was the ancient country of the Samnites. The chief town Campobasso has about 8000 inhabitants. Sepino, the ancient Samnite town *Sepinium*, is about 2 miles distant from the capital.

6*th*. *The Province of the second Abruzzo Ulteriore.*] This is a large and mountainous inland province. The principal river is the Pescara. In this province is the largest inland lake of the kingdom, the Lago di Celano. It is entirely surrounded by mountains, and receives the water of three rivers; but has no visible outlet, and frequently overflows its banks. The Romans executed a subterranean canal for letting off the superfluous water; but it has been destroyed. In 1791, the population of this province was 249,598; in 1824, it was 253,000. The inhabitants are an athletic and industrious race of mountaineers; but their dialect is thought the most elegant in the kingdom. In ancient times the warlike Marsi inhabited this district. Aquila the chief town has 7,525 inhabitants. According to Balbi a great quantity of saffron is grown here, and four great fairs are held every year.—Alba commands a fine view over the Lago di Celano; the Romans kept their captive kings here.—Avezzano near the lake Celano, with 3000 inhabitants, was formerly the capital of the Marsi.

7*th*. *The Province of the first Abruzzo Ulteriore.*] This coast province is less by one-half than the former. The western part is very mountainous, and is bounded by one of the highest chains of the Appenines, in which tower the Gran-Sasso di Italia and the Montealto. The rivers are almost dry in summer, but swell to torrents in spring. The Pescara here falls into the sea at a small town to which it has given its name. The

fertile soil is allowed to lie waste in whole districts. Chesnuts, almonds, and fruit are abundant; and the rearing of cattle forms the principal employment of the inhabitants; fishing is also a branch of industry on the coast. There are 178,000 inhabitants, according to the most recent census. They are a strong and laborious, but a very rude tribe of men. Teramo the capital, with 9,238 inhabitants, conducts some commerce. Senarica a town with 2,050 inhabitants, situated in a very rude valley of the Appenines, was called in recent times a republic, but was properly a Lombardian fief. The inhabitants, who are very poor, considered themselves all noblemen and paid no taxes. Upon the abolition of the feudal system this republic was annihilated.

8*th. The Province of Abruzzo Citeriore.*] The Appenines run into this country, and spread their branches over it. The Pescara and Sangro are the principal rivers. Rice is grown here, and wine, and oil. Silk is also produced, and that of Caramanica is considered as particularly good. The sheep have a very fine wool. The population in 1791 was 222,773; in 1824, it was 285,000. Chieti the capital is situated on the right bank of the Pescara, upon a hill commanding a magnificent view of the Adriatic. It has 12,666 inhabitants.—Lanciano has 12,576 inhabitants.—Basto is a fishing town at the mouth of the Trigno.

9*th. The Province of Capitanata.*] This coast-district forms the greater part of Puglia. The ridge of Gargano here forms a circular group of mountains and hills, from which arms run out on all sides and form a large promontory on the Adriatic. This chain is a calcareous formation, and stands quite isolated, separating the large plain of Puglia from the Appenines. Its summits are covered with forests which yield manna, turpentine, and pitch. In the W. and S.W. some other chains rise; but all the rest of the province consists of the immense plain of Puglia, which almost resembles a steppe, being without a tree, and affording only winter pastures for the sheep and cattle. Several coasting rivers flow in this province, as the Ofanto and the Biferno. In the W. the sea forms the large bay of Manfredonia. The climate is hot; and in summer the burning sun scorches the vegetation. Near the shore are swamps; but in the mountainous districts the climate is healthy. Though only one-half of the province is in cultivation, yet it produces enough for the consumption of its population, amounting to 289,000 souls, and even for exportation. The oil of Monte Gargano is delicious; the olive-trees here reach the height of oaks. The horses are the best in the kingdom; and the wool of the sheep is very good. The inhabitants are of a mild character, and in no province is there less of robbery and theft. Foggia, the chief town in the Capitanata was destroyed by an earthquake in 1732; but it has been rebuilt with great elegance. It contains 21,000 inhabitants, and conducts an animated commerce, being the market-place of 10 provinces. The Candalaro, which flows beneath its walls, facilitates its trade in grain.—At Lucera in this province, the Romans revenged their defeat by the Samnites in the valley of Caudinæ.—Manfredonia, on the bay of the same name, with 4,966 inhabitants, conducts some maritime commerce. In the neighbourhood are the ruins of the ancient *Sipontum*.—Monte St Angiolo a pretty large town in the valley of the Gargano, has a church dedicated to St Michael to which numerous pilgrimages are performed.—The Tremiti, a group of four small islands in the Adriatic, belong to this province.

10*th. The Province of Bari.*] The Terra di Bari is a coast-province forming part of the ancient Puglia. The surface is flat, but presents some

small undulated ridges. The only river of any size is the Ofanto. Next to the Terra di Lavoro this province is the best cultivated in the kingdom. Wine is the principal production; the oil is of inferior quality. Terlizzi alone annually exports almonds to the value of 30,000 ducats. In the lagunes of this province 1,660,000 bushels of salt are annually manufactured, and about 12,000 cwt. of saltpetre. The commerce is active, and this is the only province in the kingdom whose mariners venture into foreign seas and export their own productions; however, their navigation never extends beyond Venice, Trieste, and the coasts of Dalmatia, and their vessels are ill-constructed. The census of 1791 gave 281,873 inhabitants, that of 1824, 375,000, among whom are many Arnauts located along the coast. Bari, the chief town of this province, is situated on a fortified neck of land. It has 18,937 inhabitants. A great quantity of cotton is grown in the neighbourhood, and the harbour though small offers a safe haven for ships.—Barletta another sea-port, with 17,695 inhabitants, has very extensive salt-lagunes.—Canosa marks the site of the ancient *Canusium*.—In the neighbourhood of Polignano is the celebrated Grotto di Polignano, 250 feet long and 80 high, formed by rocks against which the sea beats.—An excellent white wine is grown at Terlizzo.—The village of Canne on the right of the Ofanto, stands on the site of the ancient *Cannæ* where Varro was defeated in A. M. 3745. On the field of battle called *Campo del Sanguine*, ancient arms and other equipments are still dug up.

11*th. The Province of Otranto.*] The Terra di Otranto forms a long neck of land,—what the ancient geographers called *the heel* of the Italian boot. Hagemann estimated its surface at 125.8 German, or about 2,690 English square miles. A chain of the Appenines runs into it from the W. and sinks into the sea at Cape Leuca. The mountains are not high. There can be no large rivers as the country is so narrow; but several small rivers discharge themselves into the Adriatic on the N. and the Ionian sea on the E. and S. In the S. is the large bay of Tarentum. Corn, particularly wheat, is the principal production; very good cotton and tobacco are also grown. Locusts frequently devastate the country. The wool and honey of Tarentum were celebrated in the time of the Romans. Fishing is here more productive than in any part of the kingdom. Rehfues estimated the population in 1796, at 292,172, among whom were 40,000 Arnauts and Greeks, who had preserved their own language; in 1826, it was 324,000. Lecci the capital is one of the finest cities in Italy. Balbi estimates the population at 14,086. Its inhabitants are held in the same repute at Naples that the Bœotians were at Athens. The cotton raised here is thought to be the best in the country. In the neighbourhood are the ruins of the ancient town of *Rudiæ*.—Brindisi, the ancient *Brundusium*, is a celebrated town. Its harbour was one of the best-frequented in the time of the Romans, but it is now almost choked with sand. In the 12th century Brindisi had 60,000 inhabitants, there are now only 6,114.—Gallipoli is a small town on a rocky island in the bay of Otranto, which is connected by a bridge with the continent. The oil manufactured here is considered the best in all Puglia. It has two good annual fairs.—Otranto conducts some trade in oil and tobacco. It stands on the site of the ancient *Hydruntum*.—Taranto or Tarento is situated on a rocky island connected by a bridge with the continent, in the bay to which it gives its name. This town is all that remains of the once so flourishing and powerful *Tarentum*. It was a Grecian colony founded by emigrants from Lacedæmon, called Partheniaus, 700 years before the Christian era. It soon became one of the most

powerful cities of Græcia Magna, and long maintained its independence against Rome. Archytas, a pupil of Plato and a great mathematician, was born here. The harbour is nearly filled with sand, but it still contains a good number of vessels. The celebrated art of dying purple-red once practised here is now lost, though the shell from which the colour was taken is still found on the coast. The *tarantula (lycosa tarentula)* takes its name from this city, in the neighbourhood of which it is frequently found. It is a species of spider about an inch in length, of a black colour with red streaks on the abdomen. The sting of the tarantula, although not without danger, yields readily to different remedies.

12*th. The Province of Basilicata.*] The Basilicata, which derived its name in the 10th century from Basil II. emperor of the East, is a barren tract of coast-land in which the Appenines divide into two branches. Several rivers descending from the Appenines roll their impetuous waters into the Bay of Tarentum, amongst which are the Silaro, the Liate, and the Bradano. This province is one of the most neglected in the country; the agriculture is wretched, and the roads are almost impracticable. Cotton is grown in great quantity. The inhabitants speak a dialect kindred to that of Calabria, but in some districts very harsh; they lead a miserable life, living almost entirely upon Indian corn and vegetables; their feet are wrapt up in skins instead of shoes, and they are in general totally destitute of education. In the whole province there is but one high school, at Matera, and this is miserable beyond description. The capital, Potenza, is situated at the base of the Appenines. It has 8,800 inhabitants.—Matera, with 11,158 inhabitants, is the seat of an archbishop.—Venosa, in a beautiful valley, occupies the site of the ancient *Venusium*, the birth-place of Horace.—Agromento on the Aeri was the ancient *Grumentum*.—At St Basilio, on the Salandrella, a great quantity of liquorice is grown. Three small islands in the gulf of Policastro belong to this province.

13*th. The Province of Calabria Citeriore.*] The Appenines run from the Basilicata into this country. The two Calabrias are indented with large gulfs, and watered by several rivers. Very good wine is grown in them, and excellent raisins and oil. In 1824 the population was 387,000. The Calabrians are a strong, well-made race of men; kind and good natured, but of a spirit and courage far superior to that of the other inhabitants of the Neapolitan States. They are very fond of card-playing.—Cosenza, the chief town, lies in the delicious Valle di Cosenza, on the Crati. It has 7,989 inhabitants, and conducts an animated commerce, particularly in silk.—Corigliano, with 6,000 inhabitants, is situated in the centre of a continuous olive-grove.—The two islands of Isola and Mantinera, in the gulf of Policastro, belong to this province.

14*th and* 15*th. The Two Provinces of Calabria Ulteriore.*] Southern Calabria is a peninsula forming the most southern point of the boot of Italy. Its superficies is 3,333 English square miles. The Appenines here run into the sea, and seem to pass under the water into Sicily. The most remarkable cape is the Cape Spartivento, the most projecting point of the Italian continent. Several small rivers run from both sides of the Appenines into the Faro. Southern Calabria may be called the hot-house of Italy. Oranges and lemons, aloes and dates, grow in the open air, and snow and ice are unknown; but the burning sun scorches the plants, and the sirocco and libecchio transport the burning atmosphere of Africa into the country. This country is also particularly exposed to terrific earthquakes; the most fearful was that of 1783, which reduced a number of towns into ruins,

levelled mountains into plains, and destroyed upwards of 30,000 human beings. Sugar was grown here till about the middle of the 17th century; but only the wild cane is now found under the name of *canamele*. The oil is excellent. In 1824 the population was 546,000. There are a considerable number of zingari or gypsies in Calabria. Catanzaro, with 11,464 inhabitants, is an animated town between the rivers Alli and Corace.—Crotone, on the Ionian sea, at the foot of mount Corvaro, which here runs out into the Capa delle Colonne, has 4,640 inhabitants. The walls and ruins of the ancient and important town of *Crotona*, encompass the modern town.—Mileto was almost entirely annihilated by the great earthquake, and is only partly rebuilt. Here are the ruins of the ancient and great city of *Miletus*.—Nicastro, a town embosomed amid orange and olive-groves, exports a large quantity of oil annually.—Reggio is a town with 7,205 inhabitants, in a rich fertile plain on the Faro di Messina. It was almost entirely destroyed by the earthquake of 1783, but has been magnificently rebuilt. It has some manufactures of silk and perfumery. Its name indicates its position on the site of the ancient *Rhegium*, once a considerable city of Græcia Magna. A very remarkable natural phenomenon has recently taken place on the coast of Calabria, opposite to Messina, and not many miles distant from Reggio. The powerful action of the sea has carried away a small village, together with a considerable space of the shore, and formed a natural harbour capable of sheltering a great number of ships of war in perfect safety.—In the neighbourhood of Oppida, between the rivers Modena and Trecosio, the effects of the earthquake in 1783 were most felt. Whole districts were buried in the earth, and of 2,371 inhabitants, who then occupied this town, 1,813 lost their lives.—Palmi, with 6,016 inhabitants, is an industrious and commercial town. It has been entirely rebuilt since the earthquake.—Sciglio, on the Faro di Messina, is situated in a ravine of terrific appearance, which only opens towards the sea. It was almost entirely destroyed by the earthquake, but has again 4,000 inhabitants. In ancient times this town was called *Scylla*, and here are the celebrated cliffs of the same name.

II. THE ISLAND OF SICILY.

From its triangular form Sicily was in ancient times called *Trinakria;* the Sicanians called it *Sicania;* and the Siculians gave to it its present name. This island constitutes a principal part of the dominions of the king of Naples. It extends from 12° 45′ to 16° 10′ E. long. and from 35° 40′ to 38° 15′ N. lat. It terminates in three capes. That which is nearest to Italy is called Cape Faro; that next the Morea, Cape Passaro; and the third which points to Africa, Cape Boco. It is separated from the Italian peninsula by the Straits of Messina which are 5 miles broad. The northern side, or base of the triangle, which fronts the Tuscan sea, is the longest, being in length, from Cape Faro to Cape Boco, 215 British miles. The south-western side, fronting Africa, is 180 miles in length, from Cape Boco to Cape Passaro. The eastern side of the triangle, which looks to Greece, is the shortest, being only 120 miles in length from Cape Passaro to Cape Faro. It contains a superficies according to Hassel, of 13,218 British square miles, but according to captain Smyth, who lately made an official survey of the island, it cannot much exceed 11,300 square miles.

History.] The first inhabitants of Sicily probably came from the con-

tinent of Italy. As early as B. C. 759 this island was known to the Greeks, who drove the Siculians into the interior, and established several colonies, which afterwards became independent republics. Syracuse was the most powerful of these; we shall in the topography briefly advert to it and the other Grecian republics. The Carthaginians crossed over to Sicily from Africa, and likewise established colonies here which were subsequently united with Syracuse. Agrigentum—now Girgenti,—in the first Punic war, formed a stronghold of the Carthaginians; but it was reduced by the Romans who made themselves masters of the whole island, which remained in their power till the great irruption of the barbarian hordes, when the Vandals under Genseric crossed over from Africa about the midst of the 5th century, and conquered Sicily and all the other islands of the Mediterranean. In A. D. 535 Belisarius reduced Sicily for the Grecian emperor. In 827 the Arabians occupied this island, which became the seat of an Emir who resided at Palermo. In the 11th century the Normans overthrew the Arabian power in Sicily. Count Roger of the House of Hauteville, united the island with Naples, and in 1098 obtained from pope Urban II. the remarkable bull which gave to him and his successors the supreme power in ecclesiastical affairs in the island of Sicily. On the extinction of the House of Hauteville, the Hohenstaufen dynasty mounted the throne of Naples and Sicily, which latter island submitted, but reluctantly and only after many struggles, to German dominion. Upon the death of Conrad IV. in 1254, his son Conradin being under age, the Pope gave the crown to Charles of Anjou as has already been related. But the tyranny of the French was such as provoked the islanders to rid themselves of their new masters by a general massacre, commonly denominated *the Sicilian Vespers*, the bell which rung to evening prayers on Easter-eve of the 30th March 1282, having been the signal for this act of popular vengeance. The people still glory in the remembrance of this dreadful deed; and the Sicilian children will in their sport hold up a radish, and putting to it the word by which the French were challenged on that awful night, repeat the Shibboleth, and then slice off the head of the radish, exclaiming, "Ah you French dog!" The Sicilians made choice of Peter of Arragon, whose wife was a descendant of the former dynasty, for their sovereign; and the island remained under Spanish dominion till the Spanish war of Succession. By the treaty of Utrecht it was given in 1713 to the duke of Savoy, and afterwards exchanged for the island of Sardinia. Having again fallen to Austria, it was united with Naples, and given with the latter in 1735 to the Spanish infant Don Carlos. Its after history has been related in our historical sketch of Naples. Though united with Naples, a great national antipathy exists between the inhabitants of these two countries; and Sicily has always been striving to become independent of Naples.

Physical Features.] The island of Sicily seems to have been separated from the continent by some early convulsion. The chain of the Appenines sinking into the sea in Calabria, rises again close to the shore of the Faro, where it separates into two branches, of which the one runs towards the W. and sinks into the sea, the Ægates seeming to be its vanguards, and the other running to the S. meets the ocean at Cape Passaro. From these principal ridges, smaller branches run in several directions; but the gigantic volcano, Etna, belongs to none of the principal chains. It towers alone and insulated into the regions of eternal snow. The ridges receive different names. The Pelorian ridge covers the N.; where also rise the

Neptunian mountains, so called from a temple of Neptune which stood at Cape Pelori, and the Monte Dinna Mare, or Scuderio, on the summit of which is an extinguished volcano. It is remarkable that all the Sicilian mountains are more or less full of excavations or grottoes. Between Aragona and Girgenti rises the Maculaba, a volcano whose crater, instead of fire and lava, emits mud and a kind of wet clay accompanied by a dreadful subterranean noise.

Etna.] Among the mountains of Sicily, the most celebrated, and indeed the most remarkable of the mountains of Europe, is Etna,—a furious volcano which has often spread terror and devastation over the surrounding country. The celebrity of this mountain will justify a particular account of it. Etna, now called by the Sicilians *Monte Gibello,* is situated on the eastern side of the island in N. lat. 37° 45′ 40″, in a valley called Val di Demona, at the foot of the Neptunian or central chain of Sicily. Various conjectures have been formed respecting the origin of its name. In the itineraries it is usually written *Æthana.* Hence some trace its origin from the Greek word *aithein,* 'to burn;' or from the Hebrew *athana,* 'a furnace,' or *ætana,* 'darkness.' But whatever may have been the origin of the name, the mountain itself has for many ages attracted the notice of mankind. Its immense size and solitary elevation,—the beauty and magnificence of the surrounding scenery,—and the terrific grandeur of the convulsions and changes to which it has been subject, have excited the descriptive powers of the poet, and afforded matter of interesting research to the philosopher. Pindar has called it 'the Pillar of Heaven.' Here, according to ancient mythology, were erected the forges and workshops of the Cyclops, in which, under the direction of Vulcan, they prepared the thunderbolts of Jupiter; here was raised a temple to Vulcan himself, where, as in that of Vesta, the fire never ceased to burn; and here the giant Enceladus was condemned to expiate his impious rebellion against the king of gods in perpetual imprisonment. The appearance of this mountain, when viewed at a distance, is that of an obtuse truncated cone, extended at the base, and terminating in a bifurcated vertex or top, that is in two eminences at a considerable distance from each other. Upon a nearer approach, the traveller is surprised and astonished at the wild and grotesque appearance of the whole mass. Scattered over the immense declivity of Etna, but especially in its lower regions, he beholds innumerable small conical hills, gently rising from its surface to the height of 400 or 500 feet, and covered with rich verdure and beautiful trees, villages, scattered hamlets, and monasteries. As his eye ascends, he discovers an immense forest of oaks and pines surrounding the mountain on every side, and forming a beautiful zone of green round its middle; above this appears the hoary head of the mountain itself, boldly projecting into the clouds, and covered with eternal snow. From these general characters, so deeply and distinctly impressed upon the different parts of its surface, this mountain has been divided into three regions: the inferior or fertile region, the mean or woody region, and the superior or snowy region. These three regions are equally distinguished by their temperature. The traveller, faint and oppressed by the sultry heat of the lower region, escapes with delight, into the shade of the woods, where the air is cool and refreshing; but, upon emerging from the forest, the temperature rapidly declines, and to all the difficulties and dangers attending his journey to the summit are now added the inconveniences arising from the piercing coldness of the air, and the chilling blasts from the S. to which these higher regions are

exposed. Hence another source of distinction has arisen, and these regions have been denominated the torrid, temperate, and frigid zones of Etna. The first and second zones afford the means of subsistence to 180,000 inhabitants. The elevation of this mountain has been carefully and approximately ascertained by the successive measurements of Saussure, Sir George Shuckburg, and captain Smyth; by the first barometrically, and by the two latter both barometrically and geometrically, as shown in the following table.

	Eng. Feet.
Saussure, ...	10,963
Shuckburg, ...	10,954
Smyth, ...	10,897

Greatest difference only 76 feet. Such a near approximation gives confidence in the result. The following elevations are from Smyth:

Base of the cone of Etna, . .	9,797
English Lodge,[14] near the foot of the cone,	9,596
Philosopher's Tower, . .	9,489

Admitting the height of the mountain as above ascertained, the visual ray from its most elevated point will be 130 miles, a fact fully accordant with the testimony of the Maltese. Malta is seen from its summit as a small speck in the edge of the horizon, and from Malta Etna is not visible but in the most favourable reflective state of the atmosphere. In the direction of Africa the most distant object visible is the rocky mountainous island of Pantalaria, 180 miles off. But this is the case only at sunrise, when the atmospherical refraction is greatest, and when the shadow of Etna is nearly in a line with that island. As the diurnal altitude of the sun increases, the shadow of the mountain diminishes proportionally with the refraction, and the island or its image disappears gradually till it is no longer visible. The diameter, therefore, of the visible horizon is only 260 miles, on the summit of Etna, agreeable to the law of vision which is regulated by the globularity of this earth, and the elevation of the place of observation, and not by cases of unequal refraction and illusory optical phenomena. When romantic travellers like Brydone, therefore, tell us that the coasts of Greece and Africa, and the mountains of Albania are visible from Etna, and that they themselves have actually seen them, they have either been themselves deceived, or wished to deceive others. The circumference of the base of the mountainous region of Etna has never been determined, and is therefore matter of mere conjecture, and to repeat conjectures may possibly amuse or embarrass, but can never inform the reader.[15]

[14] This lodge was constructed during the abode of the British troops in Sicily, immediately below the upmost cone of the volcano, for the accommodation of travellers. It is by no means elegant or magnificent, but it is comfortable, and in its situation and design worthy of a great and cultivated people; and the name of the Casa Inglesa, or the English cottage, may long be matter of national exultation to future travellers in Sicily. The design of this edifice was suggested in 1809, when our army was stationed on the coast opposite Calabria, and executed by the voluntary contributions of officers and travellers in the island. It contains 3 apartments and a stable. Over the door is the following Latin inscription. Ætnam perlustrantibus, has ædes, Britanni in Sicilia, Anno Salutis, 1811.

[15] The ascent from Catania to the summit is 30 miles, requiring a journey of 3 days. Fifteen miles are allowed for the breadth of *Il regione culta*, or 'the cultivated region,' which is remarkable for the inequality of its surface, occasioned by an immense number of conical hills rising on every side and in every variety of form, and generally two or three miles in circumference. All of them have craters; and one of them called Monte Rosso, or 'the red mountain,' was seen to rise suddenly in the midst of a plain, and to discharge from its top a dreadful torrent of lava which ran as far as the sea and

Maccaluba.] Three or four miles to the northward of Girgenti is the mud-volcano called *Maccaluba*,—a name which captain Smyth considers may probably be a corruption of the Arabic word *makloube*, which signifies, 'upside down.' It consists of an assemblage of little hillocks, ter-

formed a kind of promontory. This event took place in 1669. There are two resting-places in this first region: viz. Nicolosi, 12 miles up the mountain, and 2,496 feet above the level of the sea according to Mr Howel,—and St Niccolo dell' Arena, 3 miles beyond which begins the woody region. The second part of this ascent, called *Il regione sylvosa*, or 'the woody region,' extends from 8 to 10 miles towards the summit of the mountain. The most remarkable object to be met with here is the celebrated chesnut tree, the *Castagno dei cento casalli* as it has been called, which, according to some travellers, measures 204 feet in circumference at the root. It is divided at or near the surface into 5 branches; but they are all united into one root. The poet Bagolini has been thought to allude particularly to this tree, in the verses

Supremos inter montes monstrosior omni,
Monstrosi fœtum stipitis Ætna dedit;
Castaneam genuit, cujus modo concava cortex
Turmam equitum haud parvam continet.

Near this vegetable wonder are to be found two others of the same kind, each 76 feet round, and an oak 40 feet in girth. The Snow-grotto, and the *Spelania del Capriole*, or 'grotto of goats,' at the latter of which the weary traveller sleeps for the night upon a bed of leaves supplied by the stately oaks which surround it, are also objects of curiosity. Soon after he leaves this grotto the scene gradually changes. As he ascends, at every step the trees diminish in size and beauty; the vegetation diminishes to a few clumps of trees, and some tufts of odoriferous herbs; even these in a little distance become thinner and assume a withered and stunted appearance; soon after, he beholds the last relics of expiring vegetation, and passes into the *Regione deserta*, the region of snow and sterility. This last region, or upper zone of Etna, reckoning from the last appearance of vegetation to the verge of the great crater, is overspread with a flat expanse of snow and ice, intersected by torrents of melted snow. In the midst of this desert, the lofty summit of the mountain is descried, rearing its tremendous head above the surrounding snows and vomiting out torrents of smoke. The most difficult and dangerous part of the whole ascent now begins. Violent gusts of wind chill the traveller, and as he proceeds the snow gradually increases in depth and hardness till it appears one continued sheet of ice. Sometimes, from the partial heating of the surface, pools of water are formed by the melted snow which arrest his progress,—the sand and ashes, at first thinly spread over the surface of the hardened snow, gradually deepen as he advances, and are at the same time so loose that he is in danger of being swallowed up at every step,—sulphureous exhalations, constantly arising from the crevices of the mountain, irritate his lungs, and sometimes even threaten suffocation,—clouds of smoke, issuing from the crater, roll down its side, and involve him in a pitchy atmosphere,—and, to add to the horror of the scene, terrific sounds are continually issuing from the very centre of the mountain, resembling discharges of artillery in the vast abyss, and producing reverberations the most awful and alarming. This part of the journey is generally performed in the night, in order to arrive at the summit at an early hour. An hour before sunrise, the traveller arrives at a ruined structure, called the Philosopher's Tower, but when and by whom erected is unknown. Here, sheltered from the fury of the blast, he may sit down to recruit his exhausted strength and examine the objects around him. The forests below still appear like a dark gulf encompassing the mountain; the unclouded sky is faintly irradiated, and the immense vault of heaven appears stretched above him in awful and splendid majesty; the stars seem increased in number and in magnitude, and their light appears unusually bright, while the milky way shoots across the heavens like a pure flame. Warned by the first rays of dawn, the traveller leaves the Philosopher's Tower, and soon arrives at the foot of the great crater,—a hill of an exact conical figure, solely composed of ashes and scoriæ. The perpendicular height of this cone, according to capt. Smyth, is 1,076 feet. If the people of Catania are to be believed, before 1730, Etna terminated in an extensive plain, in the centre of which appeared an immense opening constituting the mouth of the great gulf.

On gaining the summit, all that is wonderful, sublime, and beautiful in nature, bursts at once upon the astonished eye. "But here," says Brydone, "description must ever fall short; for no imagination has dared to form an idea of so glorious and so magnificent a scene. Neither is there, on the surface of this globe, any one point that unites so many awful and sublime objects. The immense elevation from the surface of the earth, drawn as it were to a single point, without any neighbouring mountain for the senses and imagination to rest upon and recover from their astonishment in their way down to the world. This point or pinnacle, raised on the brink of a bottomless gulf as old as the world, often discharging rivers of fire, and throwing out burning rocks, with a noise that shakes the whole island. Add to this the unbounded extent of the prospect, comprehending the greatest diversity and the most beautiful

minating in craters, and rising from a kind of large truncated cone of argillaceous soil, elevated nearly 200 feet above the surrounding plain, and about half-a-mile in circuit. The craters are continually in action, emitting a hollow rumbling noise, and throwing up a fine cold mud mixed with

scenery in nature, with the rising sun advancing in the east to illuminate the wondrous scene. The whole atmosphere by degrees kindled up, and showed dimly and faintly the boundless prospect around. Both sea and land looked dark and confused, as if only emerging from their original chaos, and light and darkness seemed still undivided; till the morning by degrees advancing completed the separation. The stars are extinguished and the shades disappear. The forests, which but now seemed black and bottomless gulfs, from whence no ray was reflected to show their form or colours, appear a new creation rising to sight, catching life and beauty from every increasing beam. The scene still enlarges, and the horizon seems to widen and expand itself on all sides; till the sun, like the great Creator, appears in the east, and with his plastic ray completes the mighty scene. All appears enchantment; and it is with difficulty we can believe we are still on earth. The senses, unaccustomed to the sublimity of such a scene, are bewildered and confounded; and it is not till after some time that they are capable of separating and judging of the objects that compose it. The body of the sun is seen rising from the ocean, immense tracts both of sea and land intervening: the islands of Lipari, Panari, Alicudi, Strombolo, and Volcano, with their smoking summits, appear under your feet; and you look down on the whole of Sicily as on a map; and can trace every river through all its windings from its source to its mouth. The view is absolutely boundless on every side; nor is there any one object within the circle of vision to interrupt it, so that the sight is every where lost in the immensity. But the most beautiful part of the scene is certainly the mountain itself, the island of Sicily, and the numerous islands lying round it. All these, by a kind of magic in vision, that I am at a loss to account for, seem as if they were brought close round the skirts of Ætna; the distances appearing reduced to nothing. Perhaps this singular effect is produced by the rays of light passing from a rarer medium into a denser, which (from a well-known law in optics) to an observer in the rare medium appears to lift up objects that are at the bottom of the dense one, as a piece of money placed in a basin appears lifted up as soon as the basin is filled with water. The *Regione Deserta*, or the frigid zone of Etna, is the first object that calls your attention. It is marked out by a circle of snow and ice, which extends on all sides to the distance of about eight miles. In the centre of this circle, the great crater of the mountain rears its burning head, and the regions of intense cold and of intense heat seem for ever to be united in the same point. The *Regione Deserta* is immediately succeeded by the *Sylvosa*, or the woody region, which forms a circle or girdle of the most beautiful green, which surrounds the mountain on all sides, and is certainly one of the most delightful spots on earth. This presents a remarkable contrast with the desert region. It is not smooth and even, like the greatest part of the latter; but is finely variegated by an infinite number of those beautiful little mountains that have been formed by the different eruptions of Etna. We looked down into the craters of these, and attempted, but in vain, to number them. This zone is every where succeeded by the vineyards, orchards, and corn-fields that compose the *Regione Culta*, or the fertile region. This zone makes a delightful contrast with the other two regions. It is bounded by the sea to the south and south-east, and on all its other sides by the rivers Semetus and Alcantara, which run almost round it. The whole course of these rivers is seen at once, and all their beautiful windings through these fertile valleys, looked upon as the favourite possession of Ceres herself, and the very scene of the rape of her daughter Proserpine. Cast your eyes a little further, and you embrace the whole island; all its cities, rivers, and mountains, delineated in the great chart of nature; all the adjacent islands, the whole coast of Italy, as far as your eye can reach; for it is no where bounded, but every where lost in the space. On the sun's first rising, the shadow of the mountain extends across the whole island, and makes a large track visible even in the sea and in the air. By degrees this is shortened, and in a little time is confined only to the neighbourhood of Etna." As the crater, from the incessant action of the internal matter, is subjected to frequent changes, travellers vary considerably in their accounts of its size and configuration. All agree in representing the crater as having the form of an inverted cone, shelving from the top, and in depth nearly corresponding to the height of the conical mountain, viz. 1,076 feet; it is 3 miles in girth according to Brydone, 4 according to D'Orville, and 2½ according to Hamilton. The inside of the cup is incrusted with sulphur and volcanic salts; and volumes of sulphureous smoke, unable from their density and gravity to ascend from the verge of the crater, keep rolling down its sides, and shooting off horizontally in the direction of the wind. In the centre of this funnel is placed the mouth of the unfathomable gulf. D'Orville made a bold attempt to explore the secrets of this awful abyss. Having fastened himself to a rope, which several men held at a distance, he reached the very edge of the opening. Here, in the middle of the gulf, appeared a mass of matter 60 feet in height, and 600 in circumference; small lambent flames rose round it on every side, accompanied with noxious and offensive vapour.

water, and occasionally bubbles of air with a sulphureous taint. The eruptions are more violent in hot than in rainy weather; and sometimes terminate in an ebullition of mud, and stones ejected to the height of from 30 to 60 feet: though the usual spouts only rise from a few inches to two or three feet, increasing in violence at intervals.

Seas and Straits.] The Mediterranean assumes different names on the coasts of Sicily; on the N. it is called the Tyrrhenian, on the S. the Sicilian, and on the E. the Ionian sea; the *Faro di Messina*, or Straits of Messina divides it from the Continent. The tide here sets in alternately from N. to S. and from S. to N., which causes the whirlpool of Galofaro, the *Charybdis* of the ancients. The whirlpools of Scylla and Charybdis are situated at the north entrance of the Straits, where they are 5 miles broad. As in some places these Straits are from 12 to 15 miles in breadth, and in the narrowest part 2783 geometrical paces broad, they have been occasionally passed by swimming; as actually happened when Messina was captured by the Carthaginians, and many of the inhabitants saved themselves by swimming across to Italy. The rock of Scylla which poets have delighted to depict in the most terrific colours, is described by Smyth as a common sea-rock of bold approach, a little worn at its base, and surmounted by a castle. The Faro tower is exactly 6,047 English yards from the classical bugbear. Outside the tongue of land that forms the harbour of Messina lies the celebrated vortex of Charybdis, which has, with much more reason than Scylla, been clothed with terror by the writers of antiquity. To the undecked boats of the ancients it must have been very formidable: for even in the present day, small craft are endangered by it, and a 74 gun-ship will be whirled round on its surface. It appears to be an agitated water, of from 70 to 90 fathoms in depth, circling in quick eddies, and formed probably by the meeting of the lateral currents with the main one, which is forced over in this direction by the opposite point of Pezzo. In the infancy of navigation, wrecks were frequent here; but they are now rare, long experience having instructed mariners how to avoid the danger. It is probable, that the names *Scylla* and *Charybdis*, though Greek, were originally Hebrew, and imposed upon them by the early Phœnician navigators; *Charybdis* being manifestly derived from the He-

This circumstance prevented him from having a full view of the internal structure of the cavity; while the appearance of a considerable commotion on the opposite side of the gulf, attended with an increasing loudness in the discharges, warned him to retreat. The volcanic nature of Etna is exactly similar to that of Vesuvius; and their eruptions bear a close resemblance to each other, except that the explosions of the former often burst from the sides. Etna has been a volcano from the remotest antiquity: probably long anterior to the existence of historic records. The whole number of eruptions within the limits of authenticated history is 81.

Table of the principal heights of the Sicilian mountains taken barometrically in 1818 and 1819, by Smyth and Schow.

Highest summit of Mont la Madonia the most elevated of the Nibrodian mountains,	6,517	Schow.
Cozzo di Mopra, Do. do.	6,257	Do.
Porta della Arina,	5,150	Do.
Piano di Troglio,	4,968	Do.
Piano di Favari,	4,824	Do.
Monte Scudiri, N. of Etna,	3,197	Smyth.
Mount Eryx near Trapani,	3,891	Do.
Monte Cacio near Palermo,	3,222	Do.
Ciappo village, valley of Palermo,	3,142	Do.
Dovina Maria, a village above Messina,	3,112	Do.
Montoguisolo,	3,013	Do.
Vinisala, near Taormina,	2,902	Do.
Polizzi village,	2,950	Schow.
St Michael, near Taormina,	2,692	Smyth.

brew *Chor-obdan*, 'the chasm of perdition;' and Scylla from *scoll*, 'destruction.' The deepest part of the Straits of Messina does not exceed 500 feet.

Rivers.] The small extent of Sicily does not permit the rivers to be of great magnitude. They scarcely deserve any other name than that of rivulets, which, descending from the mountains with a furious course, rush almost headlong into the sea. Few of them are navigable even at their mouths: the most remarkable of these streams are the Cantarro and the Giaretta which run from W. to E., and the Salso which runs from N. to S. The heavy winter-rains peculiar to sultry climates set the *fiumare* or mountain-torrents running. Their flood however soon exhausts itself, and when dry their channels become tolerable roads to the distance of 3 or 4 miles inland, exhibiting peculiar picturesque beauties.

Soil.] The soil of Sicily is on the whole of the same nature as its mountains, being calcareous, rocky, and apparently not very well-adapted for production; but the happy climate, and the volcanic fire under the surface, make it altogether one of the most productive spots on earth. The island, however, seems not to be so fertile now as in the time of the Romans, when Sicily was the granary of the capital, the army, and the navy; and when the seed it is said produced a hundred-fold harvest. The central divisions of the island contain large tracts of bitumen.

Climate.] The climate of Sicily is hot, but cooled by sea-breezes; when the sirocco blows all vegetation dies away. Rain seldom falls; but heavy-dews refresh the plains. The nights are cold, and the natives are for this reason always provided with cloaks even in the midst of summer. Snow falls only on the mountains. In April Reaumur's thermometer may be about 17° in the shade, it never falls to the freezing-point; the mean temperature at Palermo is 13,6 R., but the heat in summer rises almost every year to 30 R., and while the sirocco blows to 35°. In some districts unhealthy vapours are produced by the stagnant water. Among the epidemics are the small-pox, and some diseases peculiar to the country, as the *elephantiasis*. A remarkable atmospherical phenomenon is the kind of mirage which sometimes occurs in the Faro, called *La Fata Morgana*, which has been already described in our general article on physical geography.

Agriculture and Commerce.] Although agriculture is the principal branch of industry in Sicily, it is conducted in a very indifferent manner; there is not, perhaps, a more fertile soil in Europe, yet not a fourth part of the surface is cultivated. All the ground belongs to the nobility and clergy, and the leases generally run only for 3 years, and never above 9. A very considerable quantity of grain, flax, and hemp is exported from this island. The Sicilian wheat grows to an extraordinary height; the grain and stalk are of a gold colour, and the ears seldom contain less than 60 grains. Oil is ill-managed and not good. Wine might be grown on a much more extensive scale; the best is produced along the coast of the Faro, on Etna, and at Syracuse, Castel Vetrano, and Marsala. The quantity annually exported is considerable. Silk is produced in great quantity, particularly in the Val di Demona; but it is much inferior to that of Calabria, and still more to that of Piedmont. Oranges, lemons, and figs are exported, and almonds, of which there are 35 species grown. Most of the roads are lined with the *cactus opuntia*, whose fruit serves as a food for the poor. Soda is a very considerable production: Trapani alone manufactures 20,000 cwt. of potashes yearly. The rearing of cattle is much

neglected notwithstanding the excellent pasturage. The horses of Sicily are beautiful, and mostly of Arabian and Barbary origin, but very little is done to preserve the purity of the breed. Honey is exported; the honey of Hybla near Melilli was celebrated in ancient times. There are no manufactories in the island; but the balance of commerce stands greatly in favour of the country.

Population.] The population of this island in 1826 was 1,730,000. It consists of a motley mixture of several tribes. The Sicanians and Siculians seem to have been the aborigines. These were afterwards mixed with Greeks, Carthaginians, Romans, Vandals, Goths, Herulians, Arabs, and Normans. The dialect differs both in extent and phrase from the Italian. A number of Greek and Arabic expressions have been retained, and many Norman and Spanish words have crept in. It abounds with diminutives, superlatives, and metaphors; and is so much better adapted for light and amatory effusions, than for scientific purposes,—that with very few exceptions, Sicilian authors write in pure Italian. The Sicilians are of a middle stature, well-made, and almost olive-coloured; among the females of the higher classes, fine and even fair complexions are found, but in general black or dark auburn hair is prevalent. Their features are fine, regular, and animated. The women in the southern districts have truly Grecian features. The Sicilian is active; but has little perseverance, and is easily fatigued. Hospitality is one of his most pleasant qualities; he is generous even to prodigality, and his natural diffidence and shyness vanish when treated with frankness and confidence. He is jealous and opinionative; but a faithful friend, and warmly attached to his country and national amusements. The dwellings of the peasants are wretched in the extreme; they sleep generally on the ground, and a family possessing the luxury of a bed is thought wealthy; their clothing and food are equally miserable. Schools for the lower classes are almost entirely wanting; and where they do exist are miserable and in the hands of the clergy. Few among the lower order can read, and still fewer among the nobles are well-informed. There are two universities, at Palermo and Catania. 'Opusculi,' 'Effemeridi,' 'Notizie Letterarie,' and various other journals have severally existed but for a short period. Of private libraries there is a great dearth; public libraries are numerous, though but little frequented, and foreign authors, except a favoured few, have been interdicted. Scarcely any English works, except Young's Night Thoughts, and Hervey's Meditations, are in circulation; some of our new works on Chemistry and Medicine have however become known and are esteemed.

Topography.] Sicily was formerly divided into 3 provinces, called *Valli* or valleys, being formed by the chains of the Appenines: viz. Val di Mazzara, Val di Demona, and Val di Noto. But the present division is into 7 provinces or intendencies.

1*st. Palermo.*] The intendency of Palermo according to the census of 1817, contained 405,251 inhabitants, in 1826 it contained 409,000. It stretches from the centre of the island to the Tyrrhenian Sea, presenting a varied landscape of the richest verdure. Palermo, the chief town, is the capital likewise of the island, the residence of the viceroy, and seat of the high tribunals. It lies on a small bay on the Tyrrhenian sea; the streets are regular and large, the houses elegant, and several of the public places very beautiful. Among the palaces the royal palace is remarkable; it is in the Gothic, or as some call it, Arabian style. The cathedral is a mot-

ley mixture of Italian, Arabian, and Roman architecture; it is consecrated to Sta Rosalia, and contains the sarcophagi of Henry VIII., Frederick II., and Roger and Constantine. Among the 41 churches of this city, that of St Guisippo with marble columns 60 feet high, and that of St Zilla containing some fine pictures, deserve particular notice. There are 71 convents, 8 abbeys, and 19 oratories in Palermo. Among the monasteries, that of St Francis is remarkable for its antiquities. There are also 3 general hospitals, and 3 hospitals for orphans. The university has a library of 40,000 volumes. There are several academies, a botanical garden, and an observatory. The convent of Capuchins at Palermo is well-endowed, and has a comfortable table every day open for a certain number of nobles who are reduced to want; but is curious for the disposal and arrangement of the remains of the departed fraternity, which are placed in a double row of niches, through four long subterraneous corridors, suspended by the neck, in their monastic garb, with a label containing the name, age, and period of decease. At one end is an altar incrusted with teeth, bones, and skulls, that are inlaid in the style of mosaic work; and, at the other, a drying room for the preparation of the bodies that are to be exposed; whilst along the flooring lie piles of coffers, containing the bodies of deceased gentlemen or nobles of Palermo, who have purchased a place for the repose of their mortal part. The cases are closed with locks, and the keys kept by the family or friends, who occasionally come to shed a tributary tear over the relations they have lost. According to Balbi the population was 180,000 in 1826; the census of that year returned it at 168,000. The commerce of Palermo is considerable; its two harbours are protected by citadels. Near the city is the Monte Pelegrino, the *Eveta* of the Romans, with the grotto of Sta Rosalia, the patroness of the town, where every year a splendid fete is celebrated in her name. The village of La Baggaria, where Hamilcar Barcas defended himself 3 years against the whole power of ancient Rome, is also situated upon this hill.—Morreale or Monreale, a town of 12,776 inhabitants, is situated in a grove of almond and orange-trees, upon a noble highroad which leads to the capital.—The town of Termini with 14,150 inhabitants, is situated at the mouth of the Termini. In the neighbourhood is the Calogero, one of the highest mountains in Sicily, upon which are the ruins of the ancient *Hymera*, a town founded B. C. 650. The island of Ustica to the N. of Cape Gallo belongs to this district. It is situated in lat. 38° 20′.

2*d*. *Messina*.] This intendency forms the N. part of the Val di Demona; it stretches to the foot of Mount Etna. Its present population is about 240,000 souls. The capital Messina is situated on the Faro, directly opposite to the coast of Calabria, at the foot of the Pelorian mountains. It is a regularly built city; but suffered greatly by the earthquake of 1783, and is not yet entirely rebuilt. It is the first commercial town of the kingdom, with a population of about 60,000 souls, 12,000 of whom are monks and nuns; the harbour is one of the best in the Mediterranean, and is capable of containing 1000 ships.. The principal articles of exportation are silk, lemons, and oranges.—At Castro Reale on the river Castro an excellent wine and a great quantity of oil are grown. Randazzo, a town situated in a large plain at the foot of Etna, has 14,000 inhabitants who conduct an animated commerce in corn. In the neighbourhood very large and excellent mushrooms are grown.—Taormina stands on a steep rock near Cape S. Elia. It is a miserable place with 3000 inhabitants and 5 convents. It stands on the site of the ancient *Tauromenium;* and the

ruins of a magnificent theatre and Naumachia still exist here.—At Fiumo di Niso, on the mouth of a river of the same name, are mines of silver, copper, lead, antimony, and arsenic, which were wrought about 20 years ago. These are the only metal mines known in Sicily.

The Lipari Islands.] The Lipari islands, 12 in number, belong to this province. They were called in ancient times *the Æolian isles*, and lie in the Tyrrhenian sea, between Sicily and the Continent. Some islands of the group are inhabited, and others are not; but all of them are of volcanic origin. It is remarkable that besides having all their western coasts steep and craggy,—a geological feature in which they correspond with the greater part of the West India islands,—the Lipari islands have each a high isolated rock off their northern shores, a singularity extending even to Ustica. Lipari, the principal isle, situated nearly in the centre of the group, and containing about 112 square miles of surface and 18,200 inhabitants, is quite mountainous, and the soil is rendered extremely fertile by a subterranean fire. In the time of Strabo there was a burning volcano upon this island; and there are still craters on several of the mountains. They are now all extinguished, but there are many hot springs and fissures from which a hot steam of 45 or 48° R. constantly rises. The productions are wine, fruit, oil, cotton, corn, cattle, game, fish, pumice stone, sulphur, and alum. The town of Lipari has 12,500 inhabitants.—Stromboli is 15 miles in circumference. The volcano of Stromboli constantly discharges fire and smoke. It has three or four craters ranged near each other on the eastern side, not at the summit, but on the declivity at nearly 2-3ds of the height. The island is inhabited however by about 2,100 souls, who have little intercourse with the rest of the world. Of all the volcanoes recorded in history, Stromboli seems to be the only one that has burned without ceasing; but the ashes do not ascend to a great height, and generally fall back into their craters.—Vulcano is 12 miles round, and is separated from Lipari by a channel of a mile and a half broad. Its volcano resembles a broken cone; but now emits smoke only. The small islands of Salini, Felicudi, Alicudi, Escabianca, Escanara, Pannaria, Basilazzo, and Attalo, merit no particular description. Pannaria and its islets are supposed to have once formed but a single island, in which they may have occupied the periphery of a great crater. Some authors assert that the long-lost *Evonymus* of Plato is to be found amongst them.

3d. Catania.] The intendency of Catania forms part of the Val di Demona and Val di Mazzara. The whole of Etna is situated in this province, which in 1826 contained 293,282 inhabitants. Catania, the ancient *Catana*, is situated at the S.E. foot of Etna. It was founded 7 centuries before the Christian era, but has several times suffered severely from the irruptions of Etna and from earthquakes. The streets are straight, spacious, and paved with lava. This town is one of the most animated in Sicily, containing a population of 45,100 souls, a university, a public library, several museums and academies, and a theatre. One of the 5 large *carricatori* or corn store-houses of Sicily is situated in this city. The plain of Catania is considered as the richest in Sicily, and is covered with fine pastures, corn-fields, vines, and olives. Amber is collected on the coast near the mouth of the Giaretta, the ancient *Simæthus*.—Bronte gives the title of a dukedom which was conferred upon Lord Nelson and his heirs. It is an industrious place with 9,253 inhabitants.—In the neighbourhood of the fishing village of Trezzia or Trizgi, lie the well-known Cyclopean rocks of Taraglione,—large basalt cliffs which are only seen in a calm sea above the water.

4*th. Syracuse.*] The intendency of Syracuse or Siragosa, forms the S.E. part of the island, or the Val di Noto. Its population in 1826 was 194,500. Syracusa, the chief town, lies on the island of Ortygia; and occupies part of the site of the ancient *Syracuse*, which contained one million of inhabitants. It is strongly fortified, and has 15,000 inhabitants. Near the castle is the famous fountain of Arethusa, now a washing place. In the neighbourhood is the river Lyane, where the papyrus, here called *parocca*, grows. Among the most remarkable ruins of ancient Syracuse are the Latomiæ,[16] the bath, the amphitheatre, the ear of Dionysius, and the theatre. The ancient Syracuse was founded by the Corinthians in B. C. 732, and soon formed the most powerful State in the island. The democracy having expelled the aristocracy, Gelon, tyrant or king of Gela, with the aid of the latter, conquered the city and greatly enlarged it. He was succeeded by his brother Hiero I.; who protected the arts and sciences, and died B. C. 467. His brother Thrasybulus was expelled on account of his cruelty, and the democratic form of government again established 460, B. C. But the ancient state of things, such as had existed before Gelon, was soon afterwards re-established, and several powerful citizens contended for the supreme power. After many wars against the Athenians and Spartans, the city was threatened by the Carthaginians from without and civil dissensions from within; during which period of alarm Dionysius gained a party, and having seized the fortress of Syracuse caused himself to be declared king in B.C. 406. His son, Dionysius II. was driven away by Timoleon, who restored the ancient freedom, and in B. C. 240 entirely defeated Hamilcar and Hasdrubal. Twenty years after Timoleon's death new convulsions agitated the city, and new tyrants arose, among whom Agathocles was the most remarkable. He was slain by Mœmon, who in his turn was expelled by Icetas. At last the city submitted to Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, son-in-law of Agathocles, who named his son king, and returned to Italy. With Hiero II. the splendour of Syracuse sunk: for his grandson Hieronimus, who succeeded him, was a cruel tyrant, and very impolitically allied himself with Carthage against Rome; he perished in a conspiracy, and in B. C. 212, the Roman general Marcellus conquered Syracuse after a defence of nearly 3 years under the celebrated Archimedes. In the time of its splendour, Syracuse was so powerful, that Dionysius supported a force of 10,000 cavalry, 100,000 infantry, and 400 ships of war from the revenue of the State. The arts and sciences flourished here. Syracuse was the birth-place of the great Archimedes, and the poet Theocritus. The *Ear of Dionysius* is a cavern or grotto in the rock, with a strong echo.—At Avola on the Cassibili, there are some plantations of sugar-cane, and a sugar-refinery, the only one in Sicily.—Modica has 13,702 inhabitants. In the neighbourhood are the caves of S. Filippo and Penninello di Jurato.—Ragusa, with 16,616 inhabitants, stands on the river of the same name. In the neighbourhood is a quarry of bituminous stone, and several remarkable caves. A large apiary is said to have existed here in ancient times, and there are still some grottoes in which bees are kept.—To the N.W. of Spaccaforno is *Ispica*, the city of the Troglodytes. It consists of a number of large and small caves cut into both sides of the calcareous rocks of a large valley. The largest cave, at the entrance of the valley, is called *Altaria*.

[16] The Latomiæ was a famous state prison on the rock Epipolæ, which was excavated 125 paces in length and 20 feet in breadth, and to an almost incredible depth. It was the work of Dionysius the tyrant, who shut up the victims of his displeasure in this rocky cavern, from which their escape was impossible.

5th. Calatanisetta.] This intendency, forming a part of the Val di Noto, and Val di Mazzara, has a population of 156,000 souls. The chief town is Calatanisetta, situated in a large fertile plain, with 15,827 inhabitants.—Canicatti is a large but decayed town, with 17,000 inhabitants. The surrounding country is rich in corn and wine.—At Castro-Giovanni, a pretty large town on the summit of a mountain, are some remains of the ancient *Enna*, celebrated for the magnificent temple of Ceres and Proserpine, but of which there are now no traces. In the neighbourhood are some very rich salt-springs which supply all the surrounding districts.—Licata or Alicate, is a considerable trading town on the mouth of the Salso, with 11,250 inhabitants. There is no harbour, nevertheless this is one of the principal places for the exportation of corn, and one of the *carricatori* of the kingdom. Here stood the ancient *Gela*, on the mountain Ecnomo, of which a few groves are all that remains.—Terranuova has 9,000 inhabitants. Its sea abounds in fish.—Palma is an animated little town on a hill near the coast. It is one of the *carricatori*. In the neighbourhood are rich mines of sulphur.

6th. Girgenti.] The intendency of Girgenti is composed of part of the Val di Mazzara, with the islands of Pantalaria and Lampedusa in the African sea. Its population amounts to 291,000 souls.—Girgenti, the chief town, is situated on a high mountain near the coast, washed by the Fiume di Girgenti. Its population is 14,882 souls, The harbour, which is about a mile distant from the town, is incommodious, but it is the only one on the S. coast of Sicily, and this city is one of the principal *carricatori*, exporting corn, fruit, almonds, soda, and sulphur. Girgenti is upon the whole a deserted place, exhibiting little life or industry, and forming a melancholy contrast to the once so powerful *Agrigentum*, which in the days of its splendour had a population of 800,000 inhabitants. Of its citizens says Diogenes Laertius, it was a common proverb, that they ate and drank as if they were to die the morrow,—that they built as if they were to live for ever. In opulence and luxurious living, indeed, this city has been equalled by few in ancient or modern times. For its wealth, it was indebted to its fertile territory, and to traffic with Carthage in wine and oil, the produce of its surrounding lands: its luxury was the consequence of its riches; both combined to effect its ruin. One fruit of the opulence of the Agrigentines was their celebrity among the Greeks for the excellence of their horses, and for their success in the chariot-race. In the list of conquerors at the Olympic games, no city could enumerate a greater number of her sons than the flourishing Agragas. Nor were the victors ungrateful to the noble instruments of their glory, for to the steeds that had won they erected monuments of a splendour and sumptuosity worthy to glorify the memory of heroes. A procession of 300 chariots is recorded to have followed the train of a citizen returning victor from Elis; while no less than 800 cars gave lustre to the marriage-ceremony of a daughter of another of her wealthiest sons, who, at the same time, plentifully regaled his fellow-townsmen, to the number of 200,000, at their own domiciles. And with the same advantages of situation, with the same delightful climate and fertile territory, what is now Girgenti? A poverty-stricken, dilapidated, and filthy village,—with the pompous designation of city,—with a cathedral and chapter, and almost as many monasteries as houses,—the habitation of superstitious and priest and monk-ridden paupers. For their hospitality, the highest stretch towards this virtue of which their will is capable, or which lies within the compass of their means, extends not

beyond the presentation to the stranger of a draught of water iced; and for the magnificence of the city, look to the principal street, through which runs the grand mule-path of the island, and which is little better than a slough, the receptacle of ordure from styes, human and swinish.—The volcano of Macculaba, with its many craters, is situated in this intendency.—Near Cattolica, on the Platani, are some ruins of the ancient *Heraclea Minoa.*—At Sciacca, a town of 11,514 souls, on a rock near Cape S. Marco, are the celebrated warm-baths known to the Romans under the name of *Thermæ Selinuntinæ.* The rock on which the town is built overhangs the sea; it is excavated, and the corn-stores of the town are kept in the caves.—The town of Camarata is built on 45 degrees or steps hewn out in a marble rock.—Pantalaria or Pentalaria, is an island in the African sea, about 60 miles from the coast of Sicily. It has 45 square miles of surface, and 3,060 inhabitants, who live in the fortified town of Oppidolo, and in some isolated houses. The island is full of mountains, among which are several extinguished volcanoes, and one which from time to time gives appearances of activity. This island would be a valuable possession if the constant dread of Corsairs did not paralyze all commerce. It principally belongs to the House of Requesens, and was in ancient times called *Cosyra.*—Lampadosa, or Lampedusa, is an island to the S. of Pantalaria. It is rich in productions, but uninhabited from dread of the African pirates.—Linosa is an island to the N. of Lampedusa, with rich pastures and a blooming vegetation, but uninhabited.

7th. Trapani.] This intendency forms the western part of the island, consisting of a part of the Val di Mazzara. Its population is 147,000 souls. Trapani, the chief town, has 24,330 inhabitants, who conduct some manufactures and commerce. Corals are fished here. The harbour is good, and a principal branch of industry is tunny fishing, which is very productive. There is a large salt lagune here. At the foot of the mountain on which Trapani stands, and which was once considered as the dwelling of Venus, is a convent of Carmelites, and a celebrated shrine of the Madonna di Trapani, to which pilgrimages are performed.—Near Alcamo, on the Freddo, are the ruins of the ancient *Segesta.*—At Castel-Vetrano much rice and good vines are grown. In the neighbourhood are the ruins of *Selinus.*—Monte Giuliano is situated at the foot of a mountain formerly celebrated under the name of *Eryx*, on which stands the ancient *Drepanum.* Good wine is grown here. There is no trace of the temple of Venus-Erycina, which formerly stood upon this mountain.—The Ægates are a group of islands in the Mediterranean, on the west coast of Sicily; there are 3 large ones, and a multitude of smaller ones comprehended under the name of *Gli Formiche,* or 'the ants.'

CHAP. XV.—THE ISLANDS OF MALTA AND GOZA.

The island of Malta forms one of the most important insular possessions belonging to Great Britain. Placed in the centre of the Mediterranean, and containing safe and capacious harbours, its consequence both in a military and commercial point of view is obvious. Its length is 20 miles, its breadth 12, its circumference 50 miles, and its surface 135 square miles. It lies 60 miles S. of Sicily; and is nearer to the African than the European side of the Mediterranean.

History.] Malta was anciently governed by its own kings; but fell

under the power of Carthage. It was afterwards conquered by the Romans, and then by the Saracens. The latter were expelled in 1089 by Roger, king of Sicily; and Malta depended upon that kingdom till 1530, when it was given to the knights of St John of Jerusalem by the emperor Charles V. In 1565 Malta sustained a dreadful siege of four months by the Turks, but was bravely and successfully defended by the knights. In the hands of that Order it continued till 1798, when it was taken by Buonaparte on the 12th of June, in the outset of his expedition to Egypt. The French are said to have found in it 1200 pieces of cannon, 200,000 lbs of powder, 2 ships of the line, 1 frigate, 4 gallies, 40,000 muskets, and an immense treasure chiefly collected in the pillage of Mahommedan vessels, and from the ransoms of Turkish prisoners. The captors also found 4,500 Turkish slaves whom they immediately set at liberty. This sudden surrender of an island and fortress hitherto deemed impregnable, astonished Europe. It was retaken in 1800 by the British after a blockade of 2 years; but it was stipulated, at the peace of Amiens, that Malta should be restored to the knights. The fresh aggressions of Buonaparte on the continent, and the earnest and repeated solicitations of the native Maltese against its restoration to the knights, combined with the knowledge that the French emperor was buying up all the commanderies belonging to the Order, evidently with the design of retaining Malta, if restored, in his own hands, induced Britain to keep possession of this place; which gave rise to a renewal of the war. By the treaty of Paris, Malta and its dependencies were solemnly ceded to Great Britain in 1814, and now constitute a part of the British dominions. Though it costs more than its revenue, yet it forms an important point in our hands; and joined with the Ionian islands and Gibraltar, affords us nearly the complete command of the Mediterranean. In 1819 his majesty founded the Orders of St George and St Michael for the Maltese.

Climate.] Reaumur's thermometer in Malta, during the summer, is generally below 25 degrees, and scarcely ever above 28. In winter it is very seldom lower than 8 degrees above the freezing point. The different directions of the wind produce an instantaneous change from cold to heat, and from heat to cold. N. or N.W. winds always occasion cold; and a S. wind constantly brings heat.

Physical Features.] This island offers several good harbours formed by the termination of the valleys, which run in an eastern and western direction from the centre. It would be useless to trouble our readers with antiquarian and geological conjectures, whether Malta has always been an island, or has at some remote period been broken off from the continent by some volcanic explosion, or whether it was anciently larger than at present. The rocks being calcareous, are much wasted by the combined operation of the sea and the air; and it is owing to this circumstance, it is supposed, that the rocky shores abound in large and numerous caverns.

Soil and Productions.] Malta was anciently little else than a barren and rugged rock; but such quantities of soil have been carried over from Sicily and Africa, that it is now become a fertile island, and every inch of ground is cultivated. Little corn is sown, as the Maltese can procure it cheaper in Sicily; but large quantities of lemon-trees, cotton-trees, fig-trees, and vines producing excellent wine, are cultivated. In ancient times the roses of Malta were celebrated for their superior beauty and fragrance. The cultivation of cotton is the principal branch of rural employment. The ground in Malta is never suffered to remain uncultivated, but is con-

stantly sown every year. Each season yields its peculiar crop, and the produce is very abundant. The ground in land of a middling quality yields from 16 to 20 for one; whilst that on good land affords 38, and on rich spots 64. The chief articles of exportation are cotton-thread, cummin-seed, barilla-ashes, oranges, orange-flower water, salt and honey; to which may be added gold chains and fillagree work.

Population.] Malta, exclusive of Goza, contains about 80,000 inhabitants; they are of Arabian descent, mixed with Italian and Greek blood. The Maltese are remarkably upright in their persons. This is owing to a practice which obtains amongst them of placing their infant children between two pieces of wood, to which they are bound, but not so as to obstruct the circulation of their blood. This treatment is continued till the child is able to walk. The natural sterility of the soil has rendered activity necessary, and produced in the Maltese a spirit of industry. No native in Malta possesses great riches; few enjoy an income of £400; and the only income surpassing that sum is possessed by the bishop, and some members of the government. Many of the Maltese are employed in manufacturing the cotton produced in the island into a kind of cloth; in which occupation the women take a part as well as the men. A great number of poultry are reared by almost every family. Fishing is a very general employment; the coast affords abundance of fish, and the inhabitants display much ingenuity in catching them. Malta has at different times been under the power of different nations; and consequently, the appearance, the dress, and the language of the inhabitants, are a mixture of those of the several nations from which they originated. The ordinary dress of the common people seems to be a kind of loose drawers or trowsers, with a shirt made of coarse stuff. Over this is worn a waist-coat fastened by a long woollen sash of a red colour. Shoes and stockings are seldom used, except during the celebration of some festival. The upper ranks imitate the dress of the Italians.

Language.] The language of Malta is a medley of the various languages which at different times have prevailed in the island. The chief part of it seems to be Arabic; and it is said to be intelligible to the inhabitants of the opposite coast of Africa. It has no peculiar alphabet. Proverbial expressions are numerous, and frequently introduced into conversation. Italian is spoken by the higher ranks.

Religion, &c.] The religion is the Roman Catholic, which has here preserved much of that unmeaning pageantry by which it was formerly everywhere distinguished. The Maltese elect their own magistrates and judges; and all law-suits are decided by the common and Roman law.

Towns.] It has already been mentioned that this island has several excellent harbours; that of Valetta, sometimes called Melita, the capital of the island, is the most remarkable. It is capacious enough to contain the largest fleet; and is so completely protected from every wind as to afford secure anchorage at every season. Valetta, indeed, is situated between two harbours, of which that upon the south is by far the most capacious and most completely fortified. Its entrance is not more than a quarter of a mile in breadth, and is so strongly fortified on each side that no ship could force a passage through it. The northern harbour is the resort of fishers, and is used for the performance of quarantine. Valetta is distinguished by a general air of regularity and grandeur, and by the number and magnificence of its public buildings; but is chiefly remarkable for its fortifications, which are the effects of immense labour, and are so strong as almost to bid defiance

to the most powerful attack. "There is," says Anderson, "but one cemetery in La Valetta, which is chiefly allotted for the poor people, foreigners, and heretics. It is situated in the Fluiana part of the city, close to the city-line, and surrounded by a wall about sixteen feet in height; which is furnished within with several rows of stone shelves, containing the skulls of those who have been buried there during several centuries. They are arranged with a curious regulation, and might be considered as decorating the enclosure of a grand anatomical theatre."—Civita Vecchia, a strongly fortified town in the centre of the island, contains about 5,000 inhabitants.

Goza.] The island of Goza or Gozzo, which contains about 13,300 inhabitants, is separated from Malta by a strait 4½ miles broad; and is 24 miles in compass. It is naturally more fertile than its sister-island, and the sugar cane is successfully cultivated here. The principal town is that of Rabatto. This island has shared the fortunes of Malta since it was bestowed on the knights of St John. The Turks laid it waste in 1551; after which it was strongly fortified and resisted two attacks, the one by Corsairs in 1613, and the other by the Turks in 1709. The coast is surrounded with towers, which, in case of alarm, can readily communicate with those of Malta. Of the natural productions of this island, the most remarkable is a plant known by the name of *Fungus Melitensis*, said to have been used with great success as a styptic, and formerly held in such estimation that the grand masters reserved to themselves the exclusive privilege of collecting it.—Comino, a small fortified island lying between Malta and Goza, has about 600 inhabitants.

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THE IONIAN REPUBLIC.

THE Ionian Republic consists of seven large and a few smaller islands. The larger islands are Corfu, Paxo, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cephalonia, Zante, and Cerigo. Six of these islands are situated in the Ionian sea, and one in the Ægean. They stretch along the coasts of Greece and Albania, between 35° 50′ and 39° 57′ N. lat. Four of them lie in a group opposite the mouth of the Gulf of Corinth: other two, Corfu and Paxo are situated about 80 miles N.W. of this central group, from which Cerigo, the remaining island lies about 150 miles S.E. These were formerly annexed to the jurisdictions under which they were placed, the five seaport towns of Bucintro, Gomenitza, Parga, Trevesa, and Venitza, on the neighbouring continent. The smaller islands are Merlera, Fano, and Samothrace on the N.E. of Corfu; Antipaxo S.E. from Paxo; Kalamo and Meganisi on the E. of Santa Maura; and Cerigotto to the S.E. of Cerigo. Hassel estimates the total superficies of the united islands at 1,060 square miles. In 1814, their population amounted to 214,000 souls; it is now 245,000, including about 8,000 Italians and 7,000 Jews.

History.] These islands were early celebrated in Grecian history particularly in the Peleponnesian wars. In the war of the Romans against Philip, Corfu adhered to the former, whilst Cephalonia and Zante espoused the cause of the latter. The battle of Actium, which decided the destinies of the Roman empire, was fought between Santa Maura and Corfu. The Romans protected the Ionian isles, and science and the arts lingered while in this asylum after the fall of the western empire. In the 13th century the kings of Naples got possession of Corfu; in the 14th, the Venetians, then masters of the Mediterranean, took these islands under their protection. Upon the dissolution of the once powerful republic of Venice in 1796, the Ionian islands fell into the hands of the French; but in 1799 they were retaken by the combined fleets of Russia and Turkey; and in 1800 the emperor Paul declared them an independent State under the protection of the Porte. They were restored to France at the peace of Luneville, confirmed by the treaty of Presburg in 1806, and that of Vienna in 1809; but were all, with the exception of Corfu, taken by a British squadron in 1810, and remained in the hands of Great Britain till, by the treaty of Paris in 1815, they were declared a free, single, and independent State, and placed under the protection of his Britannic majesty and his successors.

Government.] By the 3d article of said treaty, the Ionian Republic is to regulate its own internal economy, subject to the approbation of Great Britain; and a lord high-commissioner invested with the necessary power and authority for this purpose is to reside upon the islands. His Britannic majesty is to have the right of occupying all the fortresses and fortified places of the Seven islands, and of maintaining garrisons in them; and the

military force of the said States is also to be under the orders of the commander-in-chief of the British troops. The legislative assembly is composed of 40 deputies who hold their sittings at Corfu, which is the seat of the government. Of this assembly 29 members are elective and chosen by the nobles from prepared lists, and 11 integral, consisting of the president and members of the old senate, with the regents or governors of the five largest islands, all of whom are substantially though not directly nominated by the high-commissioner. All the members of the legislative assembly must belong to the class of *synclitæ* or nobles. The administration is confided to a senate composed of a president, 5 senators, and a secretary. The president is chosen by the lord-commissioner and nominated for five years; the 5 members are chosen by the legislative assembly, and the secretary by the commissioner. The judicial power is lodged in a supreme court at the seat of government, consisting of 4 ordinary, and 2 extraordinary members. Of the former, 2 are native Ionians named by the senate, and 2 are named by the commissioner, and may either be British subjects or Ionians. Subordinate to the supreme court are 21 inferior tribunals,—that is, a civil, a criminal, and a commercial tribunal in each island; and under these again are justice of peace courts for minor offences and small civil suits. The revenue of the Ionian Republic amounts to nearly £100,000, and covers the expenditure. It has a national militia of 4,500 men, and Great Britain maintains a garrison of 2,400 soldiers which she can increase at pleasure. The geographical position of these islands, combined with the possession of Malta, not only gives Great Britain the command of the Adriatic, and a naval and commercial preponderance in the Mediterranean, but opens an easy communication with the countries which formerly composed the States of ancient and once-glorious Greece. Our connexion with these islands, therefore, may at some period—perhaps not far distant—enable us to confer the boon of education and civilization on that country from which our fathers received the germ of these precious gifts. Being almost in contact with Greece, means might also be adopted in a settled state of affairs, to attract the commerce of its provinces to these islands as an entrepot.

Physical Features and Soil, &c.] The general surface of the Ionian islands is mountainous and rocky; but the elevations do not reach any considerable height except in Zante and Cephalonia. There is no active volcano in existence; but several of the hills appear to have been produced by the agency of subterranean heat. The coasts are rocky; but afford good havens and roadsteds. There cannot of course be any considerable rivers in these islands; Corfu, however, is watered by several powerful torrents. The soil is generally dry and calcareous; the only mineral production is asphaltes. Some of the islands of the Mediterranean are of volcanic origin; but the rocks of all these islands belong to the same great calcareous formation which occupies the continent of Greece. There is a quarry of grey marble in Corfu, and a vein of coal has also been found there.

Climate and Productions.] The climate is exceedingly mild; spring is of long duration, the heat of summer is not excessive, and there is almost no discernible winter. The olive, the lemon, the orange, and the fig-tree display their fruits and flowers throughout the whole year; in some places the happy islanders luxuriate on a four-fold vintage, and the frosts of winter are never known to chill a single rose-bud. The mean temperature at Corfu is 13.5 to 13.9 R.; the summer-heat never exceeds 32° R. except when the fiery sirocco blows; however, the centre islands, and

especially Zante, are exposed to occasional hurricanes and earthquakes. Snow often falls during the winter, but never lies except on the high grounds. Malaria prevails in low situations in the autumnal months, and the itch is common in some parts.

Inhabitants, State of Education, Religion.] The inhabitants of the Ionian islands have preserved the features of their Grecian ancestors. Both sexes are distinguished by a fine and slender shape; the men are erect, noble, and dignified in their carriage; their eyes are animated, and their whole expression open and bold. The women have dignified manners and fine features, often presenting the contour of the Venus de Medicis. As in Greece they are almost entirely excluded from society, and are of course ignorant, superstitious, and feeble in their character. In all that regards the intercourse of the sexes much laxity of morals recently prevailed, but the poor are less corrupted than the rich. All classes are fond of music and dancing. The higher ranks have been described as intriguing, servile, and ambitious; and the mercantile class as cunning and overreaching. Landed property, in all the islands, is in the hands of a proud and rapacious aristocracy. Farms are generally let by the year,—the tenant paying half the produce to the landlord. In Cephalonia where property is pretty much divided, the largest income derived from property in the soil does not exceed £900; but in Zante there are some estates of more than double this value. The foundation of a college by lord Guildford, at Corfu, has done much to improve the higher classes; and the situation of the peasantry and poorer Ionians has attracted the attention of several philanthropic societies, one or two of whom we believe have sent out teachers to the islands. The Greek patois, which has hitherto been spoken in the Ionian islands, is gradually changing into the more elegant and copious language of continental Greece. A library was established by lord Guildford; which, although it has existed but two years, already contains above 30,000 volumes of select authors; most of them contributed by the noble lord. At Corfu, Italian is spoken by the higher classes, which language is pretty generally understood in the towns. A Romaic newspaper was set on foot by the French, and has been continued by the British. We are sorry however that the press is entirely under the control of the senate and commissioner. The manners and customs of the country people are purely Grecian; in the towns we occasionally meet with some lingering vestiges of Venetian manners. The established religion is that of the Greek church which is followed by at least six-sevenths of the inhabitants. In Corfu there is a numerous body professing the united Greek creed; they have an archbishop and enjoy the same rights as those of the Greek communion. The Greek clergy are governed by the archbishop of Cephalonia, and the bishops of Zante, Santa Maura, and Cerigo. The clergy are divided into regular and secular; they are in general extremely ignorant. Each island has its patron-saint, and the British authorities are careful to humour the popular superstitions. But although religion be in a low state, it is not from the want of priests and churches, the number of which is out of all proportion to the inhabitants.

Corfu.] This island lies between 39° 21′ and 39° 50′ N. lat. at the very mouth of the Adriatic. It is separated from the mainland of Albania—the ancient Epirus—by a strait only 2 leagues broad, called the Corfu channel, running from N.E. to S.W., and obstructed by numerous shoals. Corfu is a very fine and salubrious island; it is nearly triangular in form,

and 112 miles in circumference. Its greatest length, from Cape Bianco on the S.E., to Apocripti Point on the N.W., is 60 miles; and its greatest breadth, from Cape Palacrum on the E., to Cape Barbara on the W., is about 30 miles. The climate is mild, but variable; and, in common with the surrounding countries, Corfu is subject to frequent earthquakes, the shocks of which are said to be invariably from N.W. to S.E. This island is but scantily provided with wood; what is required for mechanical purposes is brought from Albania or Venice. Olives, vines, oranges, citrons, and a few other fruit-trees, with some oaks and elms are scattered over the country. Game-birds are of course scarce in a country so thinly wooded, and birds of passage do not resort to it in the same numbers as to the other islands, but water-fowl abound and also fish. Corfu, from its own internal resources, cannot maintain a numerous population; as, with the exception of a few goats, all quadrupeds are brought from the opposite continent of Albania. The total population of Corfu is 70,000 persons, who reside in the town of Corfu, and 85 villages. The town itself contains about 15,000 inhabitants. Its population was formerly much greater: for we know that it fitted out fleets and armies, and that its alliance was courted by other States. But the poverty of the peasantry,—the want of capital among the few territorial possessors,—combined with an invincible repugnance to labour, and the impolitic restraints of their former Venetian lords,—gradually annihilated the spirit of commerce and agriculture. Under the new state of things industry and commerce are rapidly reviving. The wheat is excellent; but the whole that is raised does not yet exceed four months' consumption of the island. The chief wealth of Corfu consists almost solely in olives; and this circumstance is owing, in a great measure, to the encouragement afforded by its former masters, who promised a specific reward for the planting of each new tree. There are now 3,000,000 of olive-trees in the island; and the inhabitants are enabled to export annually 300,000 jars, each containing 33 lbs. of oil, of a yellow colour and thick consistence, which, in respect of quality, is ranked the fourth in European commerce. The olive-tree produces fruit only once in two years; but circumstances are so favourable to its cultivation in this island, that the produce of oil might be doubled or even tripled. A small quantity of wine is also made in Corfu; it is of a deep red colour, and very strong. Homer gives a magnificent picture of the garden of Alcinous, king of this island—then called *Phæacia*—which he represents as covering a space of four acres, fenced with a green hedge, and planted with apple, fig, pomegranate, and vine-trees, where

"The balmy spirit of the western gale
Eternal breathes on fruits untaught to fail;
Each dropping pear a following pear supplies;
On apples, apples: figs on figs arise.
The same mild season gives the bloom to blow,
The buds to harden, and the fruits to grow."

The island is provided with three good harbours. The capital, called *Coryfo* by the Greeks, is strongly fortified. The fauxburg of Kastrados occupies part of the site of the ancient *Corcyra.* The isle of Vido, the ancient *Ptycha,* in front of the harbour of Corfu, is defended by a triple range of batteries, and forms the lazaret. The whole island is divided into 8 cantons. Access to it from the sea is difficult, the roadsted before it being protected by two forts, situated on two elevated rocks, and lined with strong batteries. Corfu has been equally famed in mythology

and history; and has occasionally borne the names of *Drepanum Macris*, *Scheria*; *Phæacia*, *Corcyra*, and *Corfu*. It was peopled, according to Homer, by the Phæacians, who, driven from their ancient seats by the Cyclops, settled in this island previously called Scheria. Alcinous, the king who gave such kind reception and friendly aid to the far-famed Ulysses 'the man of many woes,' was the son of the founder of this colony. The Corinthians afterwards sent a numerous colony thither.

Paxo.] Paxo lies 8 miles S.E. of Corfu, it is about 7 miles long and 3 broad. Its surface is much enclosed, and nearly covered with olive-trees. This little island exported goods to the value of 96,000 dollars in 1815. Its capital, St Gago, contains a great proportion of the population, amounting to 4,000 persons.—Antipaxo, an islet 5 miles in circumference, and inhabited by a few fishermen, lies near it.

Santa Maura.] This island was anciently a peninsula called *Leucas*, which was cut through and separated from the mainland of Acarnania by the Carthaginians, or, as others will have it, by the Corinthians; it is now an island 50 miles in compass, and contains a population of 22,000 souls. The channel that separates it from the mainland is only 50 paces broad, and the island is in fact united to the continent by sand-banks and a series of wooden-bridges. It was anciently called *Nerites*, and abounds in wine and fruits of every kind. The Turks took it from the Greeks in 1473; and it was successively taken and retaken by the Turks and Venetians until the subversion of the latter republic. Amakuki the principal town contains about 5,500 inhabitants. The southern cape, called Ducato, is the ancient *Leucadia*.

Cephalonia.] Cephalonia is the largest island in the whole group: being 40 British miles in length, and 30 miles in medial breadth, and containing a superficies of 364 square miles, with a population of 70,000 souls. It lies to the S.E. of Santa Maura, and N.W. of the Morea. A high ridge runs through it under the name of the Black mountains, of which the highest summit, the *Oros Aimos*, consecrated in ancient times to Jupiter, rises to the height of 4000 feet. It terminates at the sea in Capes Biscardo, Capro, and Staja. Cephalonia is fertile, and produces excellent oil and Muscadine wine. The inhabitants are an industrious race; they have some cotton-manufactures, and are enterprising navigators. In ancient times, *Samé* was the metropolis, and gave name to the whole island. It is supposed to have stood in the place called by the Venetians Porto Guiscardo. Cephalonia has also borne the names of *Epeiros Melaina*, (*or the Black Mainland*), *Teleboa*, and *Tetrapolis*. It was taken by the Romans, B.C. 189, and torn from the eastern empire by the Normans in 1146. An excellent harbour is situated between the two small towns of Argostoli and Luxuri. The other towns are San Nicholo, Dulichio, and Asso, a strong fortress on a steep mountain. This island annually yields about 100,000 pounds of excellent cotton, 80,000 pounds of honey, and 35,000 barrels of good red and white wine.

Ithaca.] Between Cephalonia and the mainland lies the renowned Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of the famous Ulysses. It is now called *Itache*, *Theaki*, and *Little Cephalonia*. By the Venetians it was called *Isola di Compari*, and *Val di Compari*. It is 12 miles to the E. of Cephalonia, and 50 miles in circumference; its population amounts to 8,000 souls. The general and characteristic appearance of Theaki agrees with the language of the Odyssey respecting Ithaca. It is rocky, barren, and mountainous,—abounding in trees and shrubs,—and unfavourable to

the rearing and use of horses. But this coincidence alone will not prove *Theaki* to be the ancient *Ithaca*. The smaller island of *Aotaco*, in its neighbourhood presents an aspect precisely similar; and Sir George Wheeler contends that it is the Ithaca of the poet. Mr Gell—who felt a strong disposition to believe that Homer's topographical descriptions were not the inspired offspring of a creative muse, but accurate and sober imitations of their specific archetypes in nature—undertook, for the express purpose of verifying the geography of the poet, a voyage to the Troad, and produced the "Topography of Troy." He afterwards made a second voyage to our present subject, and minutely surveyed the whole island, endeavouring to recognise by present appearances as well as by the relative situation of Theaki, the ancient Ithaca,—the small island of Asteris with its port, where the suitors lay in ambush for young Telemachus,—the port of Phorcys, where Ulysses landed on his return,—the rock of Korax,—the fount of Arethusa, where the honest and faithful Eumæus fed his master's swine,—the garden of the aged Laertes, —and the palace of Ulysses; but the result of this examination was that Sir William ascertained that there is no spot in the modern Theaki exactly answering to the description of the poet; and that while Homer's text declares it to be the most western of the Ionian isles, and that the small island of Asteris with its commodious harbour lies between it and Samé or Cephalonia, the very reverse is the case. Under these circumstances, Mr Gell, firmly believing that Theaki is Ithaca, in spite of Homer's express declaration that it lay to the W., and not E. of Samé, maintains that the text is corrupted. But Mr Gell's partial amendment of what he calls Homer's corrupted text will not solve the difficulty; for Homer not only declares, in the person of Ulysses, that Samé lay E. of Ithaca, but also that Ithaca lay W. of Samé; and, therefore, if the text which affirms Samé to lie E. of Ithaca be corrupted,—the text which affirms Ithaca to lie W. of Samé must be equally corrupted; and should with equal reason be amended. The only evidences that are of any weight to prove that Theaki is the ancient Ithaca are,—the constant and unbroken tradition among the natives,—the name which the island seems to have always borne among the inhabitants,—and the medals which have been found there. Upon each of these taken singly, and all of them combined, we would ground our own belief, either that the poet was mistaken as to its relative situation, or our suspicion that the text is corrupted.

Zante.] Zante, anciently called *Zacynthus*, lies near the coast of the Moreá, 17 miles S.E. of the island of Cephalonia. It is about 24 miles long, and 12 miles broad. Zante is very pleasant and fertile, but its principal riches consist in currants, which are extensively cultivated in a very large plain, under the shelter of mountains, on the shore of this island. The currant is raised also in Cephalonia and Ithaca, but does not succeed in Corfu. Its culture is conducted with great neatness; and when the flower is out, the vineyards present a singularly rich and beautiful aspect. The fruit is gathered about the beginning of September, and is ready for packing by the end of the month. The annual produce of Zante is from 7 to 8 millions of pounds, the price of which in the island varies from 140 to 180 per cent. The whole produce of the Ionian islands in this article may be estimated at 14,000,000 of pounds. Zante is called by Italians 'the Flower of the Levant,' and it would be indeed a paradise, were it not for the scarcity of wood which is felt here, though the island anciently abounded in forests. The houses are low built on account of the frequent

earthquakes. In one part of the island is a place which shakes when trode upon, and a spring known in the days of Herodotus, which throws out a great deal of bitumen, especially during the occurrence of an earthquake. It is used instead of pitch for the bottoms of ships. It is collected once a year, and the produce is about 100 barrels of 150 lbs. each. The island contains 50 villages, but no large town except Zante; the population is estimated at 50,000. The capital, which is of the same name with the island, and contains 20,000 souls, is situated on the E. side of the island, and has a good harbour. This island was originally colonized by Phrygians; it was reduced by the Athenians; devastated by the Peloponnesians; bought by the Achæans; and finally given to the Romans. In modern times, it passed successively under different yokes; but remained, at last subject to Venice; and, like the other islands in this quarter, shared the fortunes of its mistress. The islands of Strivali, or the Strophades, two in number, belong to this island.

Cerigo.] Cerigo lies S. of the Morea, and N. of Candia. It was anciently called *Cytherea;* and was famed as the birth-place of the Cyprian goddess, and of Helen, whose beauty set the world on fire, and occasioned the war and fall of Troy. It is 17 miles long, 10 broad, and about 45 in circumference. The country is mountainous, and abounds with hares, quails, turtle, and falcons. Large flocks of sheep and goats are reared here. Hapsuli, the capital, lies on the N. side of the island, on a craggy rock. The inhabitants of this island amount to 10,000. Cerigo, according to Aristotle and Pliny, was anciently called *Porphyrussa* or *Porphyris.* It received the name of *Cerigo* about the period of the fall of the Roman empire.—Cerigotto is a small island of the Mediterranean between Cerigo and Candia, inhabited by about 30 families. It is the ancient *Ægilia.*

TURKEY.

Introductory Observations.] The Turkish empire nominally includes a large portion of the continents of Europe and Africa, whilst by far the most important part of the sultan's dominions is situated in Asia. In the present critical posture of affairs, a geographical account of that portion of the empire which is situated in Europe is a matter of considerable difficulty. European Turkey forms nearly the fourth part of the Ottoman empire: and among the European States it is the sixth in rank with regard to territory, and the ninth in respect of population: being generally estimated to contain about 186,000 English square miles, with a population of above 11,000,000 of souls. But this estimate was previous to the revolt of the Greeks and the breaking out of the war with Russia. Those parts of Greece already free, or which will probably soon become so, comprise the Morea, Livadia, and the Cyclades,—an extent of territory about as great as Portugal, or Denmark with Holstein, and which contained a population of 1,350,000 before the commencement of the war. The loss of these countries would reduce the Ottoman empire in Europe about one-seventh, and its population one-eighth; but how are we to fix boundaries which are at this very moment contended for? Athens cannot remain a dependency of the Porte whilst Patras is free; the Greeks have not yet laid down their arms on the heights of Hellas; it is hardly possible that the northern provinces of Greece should not catch the flame which burns so brightly and intensely in the south; the Philhellenes wish to extend the boundaries of regenerated Greece, if not beyond Macedonia, at least to Thermopylæ and the Gulf of Arta, so that the ridge of Œta and its western continuation may form the northern barrier, a natural limit in that quarter; Crete is not yet free; in Cyprus and Chios the Greek population is nearly exterminated; the advance of the Russian armies has compelled the Turks to abandon Wallachia and Moldavia, and concentrate their forces in Rumelia for the purpose of covering their capital; and even of the six provinces yet obeying the nod of the sultan, the fidelity of one-half is problematical. The emancipation of Macedonia and Epirus, with southern Greece, would diminish the surface and population of Turkey nearly one-third; the defection of Bosnia, Servia, and Turkish Illyria, with the loss of Wallachia and Moldavia would reduce the Ottoman empire in Europe to Bulgaria and Rumelia. These last provinces do not contain above 75,000 square miles of surface, and 4,000,000 of inhabitants, including the three cities of Constantinople, Adrianople, and Sophia; and of this population at least one-fourth of the people are in heart enemies to the religion of Mahomed, and would willingly join an invading army. As it is impossible at present to foresee the fate of the Turkish provinces in Europe, we shall describe them as hitherto under one general head and then give a distinct description of each.

Extent and Boundaries.] Turkey—using the word in its widest sense, but excluding the African States,—is bounded on the N. by Austria and Russia; on the E. by Persia; on the S. by Arabia and the Mediterranean; and on the W. by the Gulf of Venice, and by part of Austria. It extends between 28° and 49° N. lat. and between 17° and 45° E. long. The breadth of the empire, under this view, from N. to S. is 1,260 geographical miles; and its length from W. to E., taking 40° as a medial latitude, is 1,288 geographical miles. These, however, are its extreme dimensions; as the figure of the empire is extremely irregular, it is almost impossible to determine what its medial extent may be. Gräberg has estimated the superficial extent of the whole empire as follows:

European dominions, . . .	206,707	English square miles.
Asiatic, ...	542,700	
African, ...	291,600	
Total,	1,041,007	

Stein and Lichtenstern calculate the total superficies of the empire thus:

The Ottoman empire in Europe, excluding Moldavia and Bessarabia, . .	207,562	English square miles.
Asiatic dominions, ...	545,895	
African, ...	197,887	
Total,	951,344	

Hassel has calculated the superficial extent of European Turkey, according to the maps of Reichard and Riedt at 189,925 English square miles, which that eminent geographer considers in accordance with Arrowsmith and Lapie's maps. Pinkerton makes the total extent of European Turkey, including Greece and the Morea, 182,560 square miles; Balbi distributes it thus:

The government of Rumelia, . .	107,575	English square miles.
———————— Bosnia, . . .	18,890	
———————— Kapudan Pacha, .	16,589	
———————— Kirid, . . .	4,235	
Wallachia, ...	25,231	
Moldavia, ...	17,400	
Total,	189,920	

In the Supplement to the *Encyclopædia Britannica* the total extent of European Turkey is estimated at 180,074 English square miles.[1]

[1] To the above general statement, we shall here add the extent and boundaries of that portion of European Turkey, to which the name *Greece* is generally applied. Greece, in its most extensive sense, as including Albania and Macedonia, is bounded on the N. by a chain of mountains anciently called Rhodope, Scomius, and Orbelus, which separate it from Servia and Bulgaria; on the W. by the Adriatic and Ionian seas; on the S. by the Mediterranean; and on the E. by the Ægean or Archipelago. As it is washed by the sea on all sides but the N., where it is connected with the provinces mentioned above, it may be justly termed a peninsula, of which the Peloponnesus or Morea, connected with it by the Isthmus of Corinth, forms the southern part. Its utmost extent from N. to S., or from the Scardian mountains to the promontory of Tænarus now Cape Matapan, the southernmost point of the Morea, is 6° 30—namely, from 42° 40′ N. lat. to 36° 10′, or 450 English miles. From E. to W., or from the mouth of the ancient Strymon or the modern Karasu, in 23° 48′ E. long. to that of the Drinus or Drino, in 19° 45′ E. long. is 6° 3′ or 183 geographical miles, or 213 English miles. But if we extend the eastern boundary to the mouth of the river Nestus or Nesto, opposite the isle of Thasos, in 24° 40′ E. long. 52 geographical, or 60 English miles must be added; so that its whole breadth on its northern frontier will be 273 English miles. The breadth is however very unequal; between the gulfs of Salonichi and Valona, it is considerably narrower; and between those of Arta and Zeiton, the width does not exceed 100 English miles.

Divisions.] It seems inexpedient to adhere to the arbitrary political divisions established by the Turks in an account of the provinces which constitute European Turkey. These divisions are seldom recognized by travellers, and are ill-adapted for conveying either popular or geographical information regarding this country; we shall therefore merely subjoin a table of them, according to Hadgi-Khalfa and Hezarfen, two native-geographers, and in the topography we shall retain the old natural divisions of the country. Those Sandshaks which will probably form emancipated Greece are here printed in Italics.

I. Ejalet Rumili, or the country of the Romans.

Sandshaks.	*Ancient Divisions.*	
The city of Constantinople,	In Thrace.	
The city of Adrianople,	Idem.	
1. Visa,	Idem, eastern part.	
2. Kirkkilissa,	Idem.	
3. Silistria,	In Bulgaria, part of Lower Mœsia.	
4. Rudshuk,	Idem, central part.	
5. Widin,	Idem, western part, or Upper Mœsia.	
6. Sophia,	Idem, southern part.	
7. Tchirmene,	Northern Thrace.	
8. Giuistendil,	Macedonia, N.E. part.	
9. Uscub,	Idem, N.W. part.	
10. Salonichi,	Idem, central part.	
11. Tirhala,	Part of Thessaly.	
12. *Tripolizza*,	Peloponnesus, centre N. and E.	Forming the Ejalet Morah, or country of the Morea,
13. *Misitra*,	Laconia and Messenia,	
14. Joanina, includ. Karli-ili,	Epirus, with western Ætolia and Acarnania.	
15. Delonia,	Idem.	
16. Aulona,	Idem, and part of Albania.	
17. Ochri,	Macedonia, inland part.	
18. Ilbessan,	Albania, central part.	
19. Scutari,	Idem, upper part.	
20. Dukajin,	Illyria.	
21. Perserin,	Idem.	

Within the limits stated above, including the tract between the Strymon and the Nestus, and the island of Eubœa or the modern Negropont, but exclusive of all its other islands, Greece contains an area of 57,750 English miles. If to these be added 1,000 square miles for the Cyclades, the sum total will be 58,750 English miles, which is almost exactly the area of England, or double that of Scotland, with its dependent isles. The area of Greece, as including Attica, Eubœa, Bœotia, Phocis, Doris, Etolia, Acarnania, Thessaly, and Magnesia, measured on D'Anville's map—which is pronounced by Sir William Gell, a very competent judge, to be the most acccurate of any that have been constructed since—comprehends 14,800 English square miles. Peloponnesus or the Morea, which included seven distinct political States, has an area of 8,950 such miles. Epirus and Albania, including the basin of the Drino, occupy a surface of 16,000 English square miles. Macedonia 18,000 square miles, and the Cyclades 1,000. Total 58,750.

During the period of Grecian independence, however, all these territories were never united into one political body, nor formed one consolidated government, nor was ever their combined force directed to the prosecution of one common object. Those communities, whose brilliant achievements in war, philosophy, or arts, raised the Grecian name so high, possessed but very small portions of territory, as will be seen from the following table measured on D'Anville's map:—

Attica, including Megara and Salamis, but not Eubœa,	1,190 English square miles.
Bœotia,	1,530
Laconia, (without Messenia,)	1,720
Achaia, (the 12 cities with their territories,)	1,140

These States were generally equal in extent to our middle-sized English counties. None of them were so large as Perthshire in Scotland, or Devonshire in England; and the two counties of York and Lancashire, are nearly equal in extent to the whole seven States of the Peloponnesus.

22. Veldshterin, .	Upper Servia, western part.
23. Aladja-Hissar, .	Idem, eastern part.
24. Semendra, . .	Idem, lower part.

II. Ejalet Bosna, or the country of the Bosnians.

1. Traunik, . .	Bosnia, central part.
2. Banjaluka, . .	Turkish Croatia.
3. Srebernik, .	Bosnia, western part.
4. Isvornik, . .	Idem, N.E. part.
5. Novibazar, . .	Rascia.
6. Hersek, . .	Turkish Dalmatia.

III. Ejalet Dschesair, or the country of the Isles.

1. Galiboli, . .	Southern Thrace.
2. *Egribos*, . .	Eastern Hellas.
3. *Anabachti*, . .	Western Hellas
4. *Midillii*, . .	Certain European and Asiatic islands in the Ægean.
5. *Andros*, . . .	The northern Cyclades and Hydra.
6. *Naxos*, . .	The southern Cyclades.

IV. Ejalet Kirid, or the country of Crete.
V. The Principality of Wallachia.
VI. The Principality of Moldavia.

CHAP. I. SECT. I.—GRECIAN HISTORY.

First Epoch.] Two thousand years before the Christian era, Greece was inhabited by fierce and savage tribes,—the *Autochthones*, or 'children of the soil.' Our limits will not permit us to enter into any discussion or detail of the different opinions which have been advanced regarding the origin of these tribes. Inachus and Ogyges, about 1800 years B. C. conducted a colony of Egyptians into this country, and founded the States of Argos and Sicyon, whence they spread over the Peloponnesus towards the north; Cecrops, another Egyptian, followed with a second colony, and founded a State in Attica about 1550 B. C.; while Cadmus, a Phœnician, settled in Bœotia about the same time. These two chiefs are said to have founded the cities of Athens and Thebes in their respective dominions. One century afterwards, Pelops, a Phrygian chief, settled himself at Argos; his descendants, having attained wide command in this country, gave it the name of Peloponnesus. These foreigners gradually amalgamated themselves with the original inhabitants of the land, to whom they imparted their arts and manners. The numerous small States into which Greece was thus early divided naturally sought to rival each other in power and prosperity. They were governed in most instances by kings, and had their own heroes, legislators, and poets. The first common enterprise in which the Greeks seem to have engaged was the expedition of the Argonauts to the coasts of the Black Sea, or the countries of Colchis and Mingrelia. The Trojan war probably took place about 1200 B. C. This famous league against Troy indicates the existence even in these early times of a certain community of feeling among the various tribes by which Greece was then peopled, and probably laid the foundation of that national spirit, and that conformity of language and character, which exalted Greece in after ages to the pre-eminent station she attained in the scale of nations.

Republican Epoch.] The silence of history, or rather the fables with

which its earliest records are usually filled, render very doubtful the greater part of those events of which the memory has only been preserved by tradition. After the destruction of Troy, the dissensions of the dominant families, and the endless quarrels of the Heraclides and Pelopidæ, became the fruitful source of long internal wars, during which Argos, Sparta, Messenia, and Corinth changed masters, the Achaians their name, and Elis was seized by the Eolians. Draco, and after him Solon, framed a code of laws for Athens, six centuries before the Christian era. Lycurgus also presented Sparta with the outlines of a military constitution, which quickly raised that State to a preponderancy in the Peloponnesus. Besides Athens and Sparta, several other republics existed in Greece, none of which, however, could be compared to them in power and influence; Corinth was enriched by commerce, and Thebes exalted to political consideration by her heroic generals, Pelopidas and Epaminondas. Greece at this period comprehended Arcadia, Argolis, Corinth, Sicyon, Achaia, and Elis, in the Peloponnesus; Hellas embraced Megaris, Bœotia, Phocis, Locris, Etolia, and Acarnania; and northern Greece, Thessaly and Epirus. The Greek islands were Corcyra a colony of Corinth, Egina, Eubœa, Crete, Cyprus, and the Cyclades. The Hellenes stretched themselves equally towards the east and west. On the coasts of the Mediterranean and of the Black Sea, on those of Thrace and of Asia Minor, on those of Italy and of Sicily, Greek colonies and establishments were founded. The colonies of Asia Minor extended from the Hellespont to the confines of Cilicia; enriched by commerce, they speedily became the seat of the fine arts and of the highest Grecian civilization. Those of Eolis were founded in 1124; those of Ionia in 1044 B.C. The colonies on the shores of the Propontis, the Black Sea, and the Palus Mæotis, were founded betwixt 800 and 600 B. C. Those of Athens and of Corinth, occupied the coasts of Thrace and Macedonia. Towards the west the Greek republicans founded the colonies of Crotona, Sybaris, Thuria, Locri, Epizephyria, Rhegium, Tarentum, Cumæ, Agrigentum, and Syracuse; and several in the islands of Sardinia and Corsica. Marseilles in Gaul, Saguntum on the coast of Spain, and Cyrene on the African coast, were established in the same epoch.

Persian War.] The support given by the Athenians to their countrymen in Asia Minor, furnished Darius, king of Persia, with a pretext for attacking Greece; but the Persian fleet under Mardonius was wrecked against the promontory of Athos; and the Athenian general Miltiades defeated the invading army under Hippias at Marathon, 490 B. C. Themistocles and Aristides succeeded Miltiades in the direction of public affairs; the former made Athens a naval power,—the latter directed her counsels with unbending rectitude, and successful but ill-requited enterprise. Nine years after the signal defeat of Hippias, Xerxes, king of Persia, at the head of a countless host crossed the Hellespont, and directed his march, through Thessaly, upon Athens, with the view of exterminating the liberties of Greece; but Themistocles saved his country by annihilating the Persian navy at Salamis, and Leonidas with his devoted band of 300 Spartans taught the tyrant, at the Pass of Thermopylæ, what Greeks could dare and sacrifice in the cause of liberty. The lessor was repeated on the plains of Platæa, where Mardonius beheld his barbarous hordes scattered like the chaff before the banded arms of Grecian freemen. The conquerors on this glorious field, Pausanias, his fellow-patriot Themistocles, Cimon the only son of the immortal Miltiades, and

Aristides the Just, shared the fate of all their compatriots who had raised themselves to the enviable pinnacle of distinction among their fellow-citizens; they were accused of having accepted of bribes from the Persians, or of other state-offences, and driven from the society of their jealous and ever mobile countrymen. But the age was prodigal in great men, and Athens rose to the very summit of greatness and glory under the administration of Pericles the successor of Aristides. Alcibiades commanded her armies,—Phidias decorated her temples with the divine productions of his chisel,—Sophocles and Aristophanes furnished her theatrical entertainments,—Thucydides wrote the history of her glorious wars,—Democritus and Empedocles, and a crowd of other distinguished philosophers, exercised and trained the intellect of her youth,—and Socrates taught them what was the true wisdom and the chief good of life, for which, with their usual gratitude, his countrymen requited him by condemning him to death as a reviler of the gods. But unfortunately the luxury and licentiousness which wealth usually begets, soon manifested themselves in their consequences. Athens, already an object of envy to all the neighbouring States, and especially to her ancient rival Sparta, excited the deadly resentment of the latter power by refusing to aid her in suppressing a revolt of the Messenian slaves. This gave rise to the Peloponnesian war which raged for 27 years, and finally left Athens crippled in all her resources, and under inglorious subjection to Thirty tyrants, nominated her rulers by Lysander her Spartan conqueror. Thrasybulus restored the fallen fortunes of his country; and the Theban generals Epaminondas and Pelopidas chastised and subdued the imperious arrogance which Sparta, emboldened by success, had begun to assume in the counsels of Greece. With the preponderance of Macedonia a new order of things commenced in Greece.

Philip and Alexander.] The kingdom of Macedon originated in a Greek colony sent from Argos under the command of Temenidas, about 813 B. C. The chronology of its first kings is uncertain; but its history clears up from the era of the Persian war. The battle of Platæa delivered this country from the payment of an annual tribute to the kings of Persia; but in the Thracians and Athenians, Macedonia had to contend with formidable and jealous rivals. Its quarrels with republican Athens commenced under Perdiccas II., 454 B.C. At this epoch the Macedonian State comprehended only the countries of Emathia, Mygdonia, and Pelagonia. When Philip mounted the Macedonian throne, he found his kingdom in a highly distracted and weakened state; but the sagacity of his policy, the vigour of his measures, and the introduction of the far-famed phalanx into the armies of Macedon, quickly brought about a change of affairs, while the discovery of gold-mines in Thrace supplied him with the means of effecting by bribery what he could not or was not willing to bring about by force of arms. Philip aimed at the protectorship of Greece, and the Sacred war, as it was called, afforded him the means of attaining his object. Called to the assistance of the Thessalians, he entered their country in the character of an ally, but did not leave it until it had been declared a province of Macedonia; a treaty which he concluded with Athens placed the passes of Thermopylæ in his hands; and in 346 B.C. he obtained admission to the council of the Amphictyons. Sparta submitted unresistingly to the growing power of this new State; but Athens for a while resisted it with her fleet. By his victories over the Thracians and Illyrians Philip extended the frontiers of his kingdom to the Danube and the Adriatic.

The siege of Perinthum and Byzantium revealed to the Athenians and Persians the designs of this powerful chief upon the islands of Asia Minor. With much political sagacity Philip affected at this period to renounce all interference in Grecian affairs, at the moment that his agents were preparing a new expedition against the liberties of that country, and the orator Eschines was labouring to obtain for him the title which he secretly thirsted for, and the Amphictyons hesitated to bestow. The battle of Chæronea, 338 B. C. decided the fate of Greece, though Demosthenes strove by all the thunders of his eloquence to rouse his countrymen to a proper sense of their danger and the ambitious designs of Philip. Philip fell under the dagger of an assassin in 336 B. C.; and was succeeded by his son Alexander, on whom the general diet of Grecian States held at Corinth conferred the title of generalissimo of their armies in the war with Persia,—a charge which had already been entrusted or rather yielded to his father. The battle of the Granicus opened up Asia Minor to Alexander's arms; the defeat of Darius in person, on the Issus, inspired him with the design of overturning the Persian monarchy; the battle of Arbella, 331 B.C.—the result of which was chiefly due to the formidable Macedonian phalanx—was followed by the taking of Babylon, Susa, and Persepolis, and placed the empire of that powerful country, by which Greece had been so long menaced, in the hands of the Macedonian hero. Alexander's expedition to India was one of those hazardous enterprises, the signal success of which can alone shield it from censure. Alexander directed his march from the Jaxartes to the limits of India, of which he conquered the northern provinces; but a mutiny which broke out in his army prevented him from advancing to the Ganges. Embarking the greater part of his army on the Indus, to return by the Indian ocean into the Persian gulf, he himself passed through the deserts of Gedrosia and Carmania in 326–5 B.C., and arrived by this rout at Babylon. This city he had intended to make the metropolis of his vast empire and the seat of government; but the conqueror of the world fell a victim to his disordered habits on the 21st of April 323, before he had completed his 33d year, or arranged the details of that gigantic plan of government which his ambitious spirit had conceived.

Reduction of Greece to a Roman Province.] The troubles which followed the death of Alexander weakened the power of Greece. The battle of Ipsus 301 B.C. gave Egypt, Palestine, and Arabia to Ptolemy; Macedonia and Greece to Cassander; Thrace and Bithynia to Lysimachus; and the rest of Asia to the Indus, or the kingdom of Syria, as it was called, to Seleucus. Under Ptolemy-Soter Greece reflected back upon Egypt a part of that knowledge which it had at first derived from that cradle of the arts and sciences; but the decadence of the former country was begun and rapidly advancing to its consummation. The weakness of the Macedonian rulers led to the formation of two distinct confederations in Greece,—the Ætolian and Achaian leagues. The former of these associations was little more than a league of robbers and pirates for the purpose of pursuing their system of depredation with greater impunity; the latter embraced Corinth, Athens, Sicyon, and several of the smaller States who were sincerely desirous of getting rid of the Macedonian garrisons which had been planted in their country, and reasserting their ancient freedom. Aratus, a spirited and prudent man, planned this league on the broad and stable principle of political equality in all the members of the Union; and the talents of Philopœmen supported its

character and gave efficiency to its measures until the moment when it was overwhelmed by the power of Rome. Quintus Flamininus persuaded the army of the Achaian league to desert their ally, Philip II. of Macedon, whom he subsequently defeated at Cynocephalæ, and forced to join his arms to those of Rome in the war with Antiochus of Syria. Perseus mounted the throne of his father 179 B.C. This prince bore in his bosom an inextinguishable hatred of the Roman name and power; but the battle of Pydna 168 B.C. put an end to the Macedonian dynasty, and in 148 B.C. Macedonia was declared a Roman province. Two years afterwards, the taking of Corinth by Mummius extinguished the last sparks of Grecian freedom, and the whole country became a province of the empire under the name of Achaia.

Greece till the fall of the Western Empire.] From the time that Greece was converted into a Roman province, the history of their country is merged in that of the Eternal City. The tyranny of the Roman prefects soon made the inhabitants of this beautiful land regret the loss of their Macedonian masters, under whose yoke they had at least preserved the outward form and semblance of freedom in the administration of government. The candidates for power at Rome some times made Greece the theatre of their bloody struggles for preponderance; when Cæsar and Pompey fought for the empire of the world, the great contest was decided on the plains of Pharsalia. During the five centuries which elapsed from the conversion of Greece into a Roman province till the reign of Constantine, the annals of this country present little of political interest. Greece however during this period, was the theatre of events more big with importance to the destinies of the human race than all the glorious achievements of the age of Pericles: Christian Churches were founded in almost every city of Greece,—Grecian missionaries bore the gospel of Jesus to the uttermost parts of the known world,—and thousands of the sons and daughters of Greece won the martyr's unfading wreath, by attesting with their blood the doctrines of the cross. The conversion of Constantine to Christianity, rescued the Christians from persecution, but the patronage which he afforded to religion, from whatever motives, entailed many evils on the Church, which henceforth became amalgamated with, and shared the corruptions of the State. His removing the seat of empire to Byzantium was also productive of fatal consequences: for while it created a disunion between the eastern and western parts of the empire, it failed to strengthen it against the invasions of the Asiatic hordes. Constantine divided the empire among his three sons, Constantine, Constantius, and Constans; the first and last having been assassinated, Constantius succeeded to the whole empire. He was succeeded by Julian, surnamed the Apostate, who displayed much courage and ability during his brief reign from A. D. 360 to 363. His successor Jovian reigned only eight months; he was followed by Valentinian, who reigned till 378, and left the government of the east to his brother Valens. Valens lost his life in battle against the Eastro-Goths at Adrianople; and Gratian I. and Valentinian II. successively occupied the throne of the empire. Theodosius the Great divided the empire—which was never again united—between his two sons, Arcadius and Honorius. Arcadius obtained the eastern empire, with which we are now exclusively occupied. However unsettled the organization and constitution of the eastern empire were, its dissolution was not effected till 1453. The fact that the eastern empire should have lasted almost one thousand years longer than the western, can only be accounted for by observing

that the Asiatic hordes, upon their first invasion of Europe, repulsed at the outposts of Constantinople, directed their steps towards the Po, and that the politics of the Grecian court favoured the subversion of the rival empire. Theodosius II. spent his time in copying prayer-books and singing psalms, while his sister Pulcheria held the reigns of government for him. Upon his death in 454 Pulcheria married the Thracian Marcianus, who was also named emperor. Marcianus was succeeded by Leo I. under whose reign the clergy assumed that influence in political affairs which had been hitherto enjoyed by the prætors. Disputes concerning points of doctrines, and the extirpation of heresies, now formed the great business of the Byzantine court. Zeno, the son-in-law of Leo, rendering himself odious by his despotism, was driven from Constantinople; but regained the throne by violence, and reigned till 491. He was succeeded by Anastasius I. whom the gallant Justin supported by his military talents. Originally a swine-herd, Justin rose to the first military dignity in the State, and reached the throne in 518, which he occupied till 527. Under his grandson and successor, Justinian I. the Vandal empire in Africa was conquered by the great Belisarius in 534, who also expelled the Eastro-Goths from Italy, which now became a province of the Byzantine empire, under the name of the Exarchate. It was also under Justinian that the celebrated chancellor Trebonius, and other learned lawyers, drew up that body of Roman laws which we now possess under the name of the Justinian code. The newly-founded empire of the Arabians now threatened Byzantium. Between 642 and 668 the Arabians conquered Cyprus, Rhodes, Egypt, and the other African provinces of the empire; and in 672 the capital itself was assailed by these conquerors, now masters of the Asiatic provinces, and only saved by the astonishing effects of the Grecian fire-darts. Under the government of Leo Isauricus, the famous iconoclast controversy nearly produced a revolution in the State. His son Constantinus IV. lost the Exarchate, which was wrested from him by the Longobard chief, Aistulph. Charlemagne, already 60 years of age, formed the intention of espousing the empress Irene in 802, and thus uniting again the two empires; but the Byzantine nobles opposed this, and placed their empress in a convent. Alexius Comnenus, who mounted the throne in 1081, was a man of great talent, and might have renovated the decaying strength of the Greek empire, had not the Crusades given a new complexion to affairs. In 1204 the crusading chiefs founded what they called the Latin empire, at the head of which they placed count Baldwin of Flanders, with the city of Constantinople for his seat of government, whilst the Comnenes were driven away to Nicea and Trapezunt. But in 1261 the Nicean emperor, Michael Palæologus, with the aid of the Genoese, expelled Baldwin II. from the Latin throne, and re-established the dynasty of Comnenus at Constantinople. The Osman Turks penetrated into Europe in 1355, and conquered Thrace, Thessaly, Macedonia, and Bulgaria; three years afterwards, Amurath founded the seat of his empire at Adrianople. These invaders were long kept in check by the regent of Hungary, and the prince of Epirus; but the nations of western Europe looked too supinely on, and on the 29th of May, 1453, Mahommed II. took Constantinople by assault.

From 1204 till 1460, Greece Proper, the Morea, and the Archipelago, were successively ruled by the French, the Catalans, and the Venetians; but between 1460 and 1470 the Turks conquered Greece Proper, the Morea, and Negropont. In 1687 the Venetians recovered the Morea, which in 1715 was again

wrested from them by the Turks, and the slavery of Greece consummated. A few tribes, entrenched in their native mountains, such as the Mainottes in the Morea, the Souliotes in Epirus, and the Sphackiotes in Candia, preserved their independence or paid but a nominal submission to the conquerors; in the rest of Greece Turkish domination was effectually established. The Porte divided Greece into sandshaks. These provinces, governed by pashas or by beys, were subdivided into waivodes or cantons; the administration of which was managed by codja-bachis and the Greek primates. Impositions and taxes of every kind were exacted throughout the whole sandshaks; in the Morea alone the Greeks paid an annual tribute of 12,000,000 of piastres. In spite of all this, however, the Morea was still, a few years before the present revolution, the most thickly peopled district in Greece, and the Christian population had there the greatest superiority of numbers over the Turkish. In Romelia there were 1,800,000 Turks to 1,600,000 Greeks; but in the Morea there were only 50,000 Turks to 700,000 Christians. It was here too that the rule of the Turks was most oppressive to the Greeks. In the Morea there was neither that military institution of the Armatoles, nor those civil and political articles of agreement so common in Thessaly and Epirus, nor those compositions for the odious tax of the karatch, which on the other side of the isthmus mitigated the slavery of the Greeks, or at least confined within certain limits the insolence of their Turkish masters, and brought about a certain similarity of habits between the two nations. Here conquest had retained its original condition of violence,—here religious and political animosity was preserved in all its primitive energy,—and thus it was that the numerical superiority of the ruled over their rulers in this district of Greece, and the very excess of their sufferings joined to the advantages contingent upon the local nature of the country, all conspired in 1820 to render the Morea the principal theatre of the Greek revolution.

SECT. II.—TURKISH HISTORY.

Origin of the Turks.] The name of the Turks begins to appear in history about the middle of the 6th century, when this Scythian tribe settled at the foot of the Altai, in the steppes of Upper Asia, between Siberia and China. In the middle of the 7th century a new religion appeared in the Deserts of Arabia, which rapidly propagated itself throughout Asia and Africa. Mahomet's successors, the khalifs, in 638, conquered Syria and Palestine, and in 762, Bagdad the seat of a new monarchy was founded under their auspices. The khalifs of Bagdad, admiring the reported bravery of the Turks, had long chosen their body-guard from this tribe. The chiefs of this guard gradually assumed great authority in the affairs of state. Hence arose the *Emir al Omrahs* of the khalifs, who, like the *Majores Domus* of the Franconian kings, under the name of prime-ministers, gradually engrossed the real power of the State, and finally elevated themselves to the throne of their masters. In the 9th and 10th centuries the Turkish dynasties of the Tulunides and Akshidides reigned in Palestine, Syria, and Egypt; and from the end of the 10th to the close of the 12th century the dynasty of the Gasnevides reigned in Persia and India. The Seldshucks, another Turkish tribe, nearly about the same period that their brethren won the dominion in these countries, with increasing numbers and strength, successively crossed the

Siphoon and Oxus, attacking nations immersed in luxury, and rendered effeminate by long-continued peace, had overrun a great part of Asia before the close of the 11th century, and founded a mighty empire in the East with which the Crusaders contended for the possession of Palestine. In the 13th century, the Mongols—a nation differing in language and manners from the Tartar-stem to which the Turks belonged—uniting with several other hordes, overthrew the power of the Seldshucks in Asia Minor, and founded several small Mongolian States in that country; but the chiefs and emirs of the Seldshucks and Turkomans soon led back their tribes from the valleys of the Taurus and divided Asia Minor amongst their warlike followers.

Foundation of the Turkish empire.] One of these emirs was Osman or Othman, the founder of the Ottoman empire. This chief was of the tribe of the Oguzian Turkomans. In 1299 he took possession of the narrow passes of Olympus,[2] and established his camp of Caucasian-Tartars in the plains of Bithynia, under the protection of the Seldshuck sultan of Iconium. Reinforced by the accession of a number of fugitive slaves, robbers, and captives, he laid waste the surrounding countries, and conquered some provinces of Asia Minor belonging to the Roman empire of the East. Upon the death of the sultan of Iconium in 1300, (Hejira 700) Othman assumed the title of sultan himself: thus was founded by a predatory chief, upon the ruins of the power of the Arabs, Seldshucks, and Mongols, the empire of the Ottoman Turks in Asia. Between 1300 and 1566 the gallantry and activity of ten great princes aided by the heroic fanaticism with which Islamism inspires its devotees, raised the Ottoman state to the rank of the first military power in Europe. Orcan, Othman's son, established the seat of his empire at Brussa, the capital of Bithynia, which he conquered in 1328. He then subdued Asia Minor to the Hellespont; and having assumed the title of *Padishah* or 'prince,' obtained the hand of a daughter of the Grecian emperor Kantakuzenos in marriage. Orcan's son, the gallant Solyman I. entered Europe in 1355, and having seized Gallipoli and Sestos, made himself master of the Straits which divide Europe from Asia. Amurath I. established the seat of his empire at Adrianople, and profiting by the feebleness of the Greeks, expelled them from Thrace, and defeated the Bulgarians and Servians in a dreadful battle on the plains of Cossova.

Bajazet.] Bajazet, who succeeded Amurath, was a prince of a fierce and enterprising character. By an uninterrupted train of victories he conquered the greater portion of that territory which the Turks still possess in Europe. His conquests soon surrounded the narrow possessions of the Greek emperor, whom the haughty sultan affected to consider as his vassal. Palæologus the Greek emperor solicited the assistance of the western princes of Christendom, and an army was speedily raised which amounted to 130,000 men, and which, under Sigismund, king of Hungary, and the Count de Nevers, succeeded for some time in counteracting the efforts of the sultan. Their hopes of ultimate success, however, were soon terminated; Bajazet's skill and bravery forced them to retreat towards the west and leave him at liberty to direct his whole strength against the city of Constantinople. John, the son of Manuel's elder brother, had strong pretensions to the throne of the Cæsars, but had been excluded from the succession chiefly by the popular arts of his uncle. Dazzled by the possession of a crown

[2] There are about 800 families of Turkomans still leading a wandering life in these passes.

which he saw no other method of obtaining, John engaged to deliver Constantinople into the hands of the sultan provided he was given the sovereignty of the Morea. A treaty to this effect was no sooner concluded, than Bajazet informed the citizens of Constantinople that he would immediately raise the siege if they would expel Manuel and receive John as their sovereign. The proposal instantly produced two factions; but Manuel, under the circumstances in which he was placed, declared his willingness to resign, and retiring to the western parts of Europe, endeavoured to rouse the European princes to check the growing power of the Turks. John, when once possessed of the throne, refused to fulfil his engagement with the sultan, who, enraged at the disappointment of his hopes, again attacked the imperial city with redoubled fury, and would at length have forced it to submit to whatever terms he should impose, had not the unexpected tidings of a dreadful invasion by the Tartarian prince Demir, so well known under the appellation of Timour or Tamerlane, forced him to hurry into his Asiatic provinces for the purpose of checking the career of this new enemy. The two warriors met each other with the intrepidity which was natural to them, and with an ardour inspired on both sides by a career of uninterrupted success. The contest was furious and sanguinary, but unfortunate for the Turks; the sultan was made prisoner, and the greater part of his army destroyed in a dreadful battle which lasted from daybreak to nightfall. The defeat of Bajazet for some time retarded the increase of the Turkish power; but Tamerlane was not succeeded by such as could maintain the reputation for conquest which he had obtained, and the Turks again had leisure to attempt the destruction of the Greek empire.

Amurath II.] Amurath II. led his army into Macedon and plundered the principal cities of that country, as well as those of Bœotia, Ætolia, and Phocis. Servia next yielded to his arms; and entering Hungary, he invested the city of Belgrade. The intrepidity and skill of John Hunniades, enabled the Hungarians not only to defend themselves, but to carry on offensive operations against the Turkish forces. In the celebrated siege of Belgrade the sultan lost many of his men; no fewer than 150,000 are said to have fallen in one attack made upon them from the town, and the siege was at length raised. Irritated by discomfiture to which he had been little accustomed, the sultan sent a great army into Transylvania; but Hunniades met them, and, with the loss of only 3,000 of his own men, is said to have destroyed upwards of 30,000 Turks. Another army, more numerous, was despatched against the Christians, and its efforts were equally unsuccessful. But these repeated defeats, far from humbling the Turks, only stimulated them to still greater efforts; another army was immediately despatched towards the west, and the Christians on the 10th of November 1444, experienced a complete defeat before Varna. In the eastern parts of Europe there now remained no power which could with any prospect of success oppose itself to the Turkish arms. The Greek emperor's power was confined within the walls of Constantinople; and for the narrow surrounding territory he was forced to pay the sultan an annual tribute of 300,000 aspers. Cannon were now introduced into the Turkish army, and the whole Peloponnesus was subjugated.

Mohammed the Great.] Mohammed II. who, in 1449, succeeded his father Amurath, desirous of terminating a war in which he was engaged against the prince of Caramania, made peace with the emperor of the

Greeks; but he had no sooner brought this contest to a close, than he provoked a fresh dispute with the Greek emperor, and laid siege to the imperial city with an army amounting, it is said, to 400,000 men. The garrison is represented as having consisted of only 9,000 regular forces; but the numbers on both sides are probably erroneous. The siege commenced on the 6th of April 1453, and was carried on with a vigour which threatened a speedy downfall to the city. Constantine resolved to defend himself to the last extremity; but it soon became evident that the besieged could not long resist the multitudes by whom they were assailed. On the 29th of May, a dreadful attack commenced; the defence was desperate. but crowds of Turks continually pressing forward to supply the places of those who had fallen, the strength of the heroic garrison was at length exhausted. The emperor with all his warriors were overwhelmed in the assault, and for three days the imperial city continued to be a scene of the most inhuman carnage. A magnificent turpentine-tree still marks the spot where the last of the Palæologi fell. Thus terminated the existence of the western empire in the year of the Hejira 857, and 1123 years after Constantine had removed the seat of the empire from Rome to Byzantium, and had given his name to that celebrated city, which was now declared to be the seat of the Turkish court, and capital of the Turkish dominions.

Mohammed's success at Constantinople, far from satisfying his ambition, only stimulated him to new undertakings. He entered Servia with 20,000 men, and made it tributary; and next with an enormous force laid siege to Belgrade, which he was only prevented from taking by the extraordinary talents of Hunniades, who defeated the Turkish fleet and army, and forced the sultan to retire into Servia, but did not long survive his glorious victory. Disappointed in his hopes of success against Hungary, Mohammed turned his attention to the Morea and islands of the Ægean sea. The former region had been seized by the Albanians,—a warlike race who offered to deliver the cities to the Turks on condition of being permitted to retain in their power the open country, for the purpose of following their ordinary occupation of shepherds; but the Turks, more willing that this territory should be possessed by the feeble Greeks than by the fierce Albanians, attacked the latter, and drove them from the country. The Greeks submitted with reluctance to the Turkish yoke, and made a few efforts to regain their liberty; but, in 1459, the whole country, except a few places on the coast in the hands of the Venetians, was added to the Turkish empire. The conquest of the Morea was in a short time followed by that of Trebizond, the retreat of the Comneni, who had dignified their petty monarchy with the vain title of the empire of Trebizond. After the death of Hunniades, Bosnia had fallen into Mohammed's hands, and he was meditating new enterprises, when the most formidable adversary whom he had ever been called to encounter, appeared in the person of George Castriota, an Epirote by nation, generally called Scanderbeg. Castriota defeated an army of 10,000 Turks, who had been sent against Epirus, with very little loss. Another Turkish army he attacked and dispersed. Amesa, the nephew of Castriota, disgusted at some part of his uncle's conduct, went over to the Turks, and received the command of 50,000 men; Castriota, with 6,000 men, retired before him, till the Turkish army being drawn into a disadvantageous situation, he attacked and defeated them with the loss of 20,000 men. Three large Turkish armies were successively overthrown by the intrepid and skilful Epirote; and tired of a contest in which he had experienced uninterrupted

disasters, the sultan contracted a truce with Scanderbeg. The western Europeans now once more began to dread the Turkish encroachments; and the Venetians formed an alliance with the Hungarians for the purpose of checking the progress of their eastern adversaries, into which confederacy Castriota was drawn. In 1466 the sultan again entered Epirus with an immense army, and compelled Scanderbeg to take refuge at Lyssa in the Venetian States, where he died in 1466. The Venetians defeated the Turkish army in 1469, but this was almost the only advantage of which they could boast,—they were driven from Negropont, and the reduction of Epirus and Albania, deprived of their intrepid defendant, was almost instantaneous. Unable, by themselves, to maintain the contest, the Venetians gladly formed an alliance with the kings of Naples and of Syracuse, and with the grand master of the knights of Malta at that time in possession of the island of Rhodes. The Turks in an attack upon Rhodes were repulsed; but from the Venetians they took the city of Cephalonia, and invading Italy, made themselves masters of Otranto.

Bajazet II. and Selim I.] Mohammed II. did not long survive the reduction of this strong city. Bajazet II. his successor, subdued Croatia and Caramania. The Venetians recovered Cephalonia; but this slight advantage did not counterbalance the success of the Turks, who took the cities of Lepanto, Durazzo, and Modon, and plundered Syria on the one hand, and Moldavia on the other. Bajazet, now advanced to a considerable age, and willing to retire from the fatigues of government, formed the design of resigning his power to his eldest son, Achmed. But Selim, his second son, more enterprising and ambitious than his brother, suddenly arrived from Trebizond, and having put his father to death, ascended the throne, and by the murder of his brother secured his power. These transactions took place in 1512. Selim attacked the Persians, and along with some other places took the city of Tauris. He next turned his arms against Egypt, and finished the conquest of that country which had been commenced by his father. The shortness of his reign did not permit him to extend his conquests farther; he died in 1519.

Solyman I.] Solyman, the tenth sultan of his race, conquered Belgrade, and drove the knights of Malta from Rhodes, after a defence which has excited the admiration of all succeeding ages. A rebellion in Egypt for some time interrupted the prosecution of the war in Europe, but Hungary was again attacked in 1525. The fatal field of Mohatz witnessed the overthrow of Corvineu, who, with an army amounting only to 25,000 men had rashly but gallantly attacked 200,000 Turks. Buda immediately surrendered; and though it was retaken in 1528, it almost immediately fell again into the hands of the Turks. Moldavia was next forced to submit to the victorious Mohammedans, who then proceeded to the siege of Vienna. This city was furiously attacked, but was no less resolutely defended, until the autumnal rains retarded the operations of the besiegers and forced the sultan to abandon his undertaking. The Turks had no sooner raised the siege of Vienna, than their enemies acquiring new courage, assailed and drove them from every part of the German territories. Solyman now directed his arms against the nations on his eastern frontiers; Georgia was reduced, and Bagdad also fell into his hands, while Barbarossa, his celebrated admiral, caused himself to be dreaded in every part of the Mediterranean. Hungary had long been harassed by the Turkish forces: it was once more attacked and reduced to the state of a Turkish province.

Solyman's friendship was courted by France, for the purpose of counteracting the designs of her powerful enemies. He died in 1566.

Selim II. to Othman II.] Selim II. who succeeded his father, for some time conducted the wars of the empire with equal vigour and prosperity; but his fleet failed of that success which attended his army. The commercial powers in the Mediterranean had combined their forces, so that the confederate fleet consisted of 200 galleys with many smaller vessels, having on board, besides their crews, 20,000 soldiers. The Turkish fleet consisted of no fewer than 335 vessels, manned with the most resolute of their troops; but having been built only for the purpose of war, was manned by such as had little experience in naval matters. The fleets came in sight of each other, on the 7th of October 1571, between Lepanto and Patras. The Turks with their usual impetuosity, commenced the engagement, and fought with a vigour which rendered the issue of the combat for a long time doubtful. At length, however, they were compelled to give way; and the Christians redoubling their efforts almost completed the total destruction of the adverse fleet. According to the historians of those times, the number of galleys taken was 161, with 3,500 prisoners; 40 galleys were sunk or otherwise destroyed; and upwards of 30,000 Turks are said to have lost their lives in this engagement. That the Mohammedans were not entirely discouraged, however, by their defeat, may be inferred from the conduct of the Turkish admiral, who, within a year, collected a fleet of 250 galleys, and almost with impunity insulted the coasts of the Mediterranean. Selim continued, during the whole of his reign, to carry on war against the Hungarians; but the success on either side was far from being decisive. The powers of the Turks and of their European neighbours were now nearly balanced. In the reign of Amurath III. who succeeded Selim, the advantage became more evidently in favour of the Christians; and, since that time, though the Turks have sometimes enjoyed a transitory success, the real stability of their affairs has constantly declined. Mohammed III. in 1594, succeeded his father Amurath. The emperor of Germany, Rodolph II. made an alliance with the sovereigns of Wallachia, Moldavia, and Transylvania, for the purpose of carrying on active operations against the common enemies of Christianity. The Turks had now lost much of their self-confidence, and disdained not to call the Tartars to their aid against an enemy whom they had formerly despised. But the combined forces of the Turks and Tartars could not withstand the confederated Christians; they were defeated in several engagements, and many of their cities fell into the hands of the conquerors; and in a short time the Turks were driven from every place which they had held in Transylvania, Wallachia, and Moldavia, while in Hungary the plague and famine made such havock among their troops, that of 85,000 who had entered it, in a short time only 8,000 remained. Othman II. in 1621, was engaged in a war with the Poles, who, at that time possessed a military fame not inferior to that of any other European nation. It was not distinguished by any remarkable event, and was followed by a treaty in which the Polish merchants were allowed the privilege of trading in Turkey,—a privilege for which they consented to pay the annual sum of 10,000 sequins.

Amurath IV. to Mustapha III.] During a long period little alteration took place in the mutual relations between the Turks and western Europeans. Wars, indeed, were frequent; but few advantages were gained on either side,

and these few were not of great importance. In 1672 the Poles having attempted to subvert the Cossacks from their allegiance to the Porte, the Turks entered Poland, and forced the Poles to agree to the payment of a yearly tribute, and to deliver to their conquerors a considerable portion of the territory of Kaminieck. The dissensions which prevailed at this time amongst the Poles, prevented them from making those efforts which they otherwise might have done; so that, after a feeble contest, sustained for two years, the Poles were constrained to make peace. The Russians, however, who had entered into an alliance with Poland, continued their efforts, and attacking the Tartars entirely discomfited them, and the Turks no sooner heard of the defeat of their allies than they fled with precipitation. In 1684, the Venetians once more took part in the war, and the Ottoman empire in Europe seemed to be verging towards destruction, when by the wisdom and bravery of one man its affairs were once more retrieved. When Achmet Kiuperli was made grand vizier, he found every thing in the most embarrassing situation, and the minds of the common people, on account of their frequent defeats, completely discouraged. He had the art, however, to call to his aid that religious enthusiasm which when properly managed conducts men to the most daring undertakings,—the merit of opposing the armies of infidels was placed in the strongest light,—and the predestinating creed of the prophet was forcibly inculcated. The effects of the vizier's policy were quickly visible, the Christians were defeated in almost every quarter, and in 1676 the Turks had retaken Candia, Podolia, and the Ukraine, and might, perhaps, have extended their conquests still farther, had they not lost their vizier at this juncture in an engagement with the Germans. After the death of Kiuperli, the Turkish affairs fell into confusion; but negotiations for a peace were commenced; and, in 1698, a treaty was concluded at Carlowitz between the contending parties. The Germans retained possession of Transylvania; the Bannat of Temiswar and part of Sclavonia was yielded to the Turks; the navigation of the Teisse and Maros rivers was declared free to both parties; a proper boundary was fixed between the German and Turkish parts of Hungary; and the truce was to continue 25 years. The peace with the Russians was to continue only for two years, but they were to retain Azoff. With the Poles, the duration of the treaty was to be the same: Moldavia was yielded to the Turks, while Kaminieck, Podolia, and the Ukraine, were to be restored, to the Poles. The Venetians retained possession of the Morea, with several other parts of the Turkish territories, and several ports were declared free to both nations. The cession of the Morea was the provision to which the Turks most unwillingly acceded; they seized the opportunity of some commotions which prevailed among the European powers, and drove the Venetians from that part of their territories. For some time after these events the Turkish transactions were of little importance. Under Peter the Great the Russians once more attacked them; but the transactions of that war—which are little interesting—have been already mentioned. The Russians continued to view with envy these fine provinces which owned subjection to the Turkish dominion, and wished for nothing more than an opportunity of extending their frontiers on that side. When such was their disposition, it was not surprising that they should seize the first opportunity of quarrel. They had, for some time taken an active hand in the disturbances of Poland, and had effected what they were pleased to call a settlement of the affairs of that distracted kingdom: a discontented Pole retired to some part of the

Turkish territories, and without the consent, nay probably without the knowledge of the Turkish government, invited his countrymen to join him, promising them the support of the Ottoman forces,—the Russians, without much inquiry, seized this opportunity of attacking the Turks, and, in 1769, declared a new war. The success which attended the Russians too plainly betrayed the feeble state of their adversaries. The fortress of Azof, at the mouth of the Don, was immediately seized; and Gallitzin, passing the Dniester, endeavoured to seize the fort of Choczim, but was forced to repass the river. Returning, however, in a short time, he defeated the vizier's army, and once more invested Choczim, but his success was not greater than before,—he was forced to retreat. The alternate success and defeat of their generals displeased both governments. The Turks gave the command of their armies to Moldovani, and the Russians appointed Romanzof to succeed Gallitzin. Moldovani thrice endeavoured to pass the Dniester, and as frequently was obliged to retreat. He retired towards Bender, taking along with him the garrison of Choczim, a fortress which immediately fell into the hands of the Russians. The city of Yassy yielded to the Russian arms; and Romanzof invested Bender, but finding the season too far advanced for carrying on the siege, he withdrew his forces. The Turks were now so much discouraged, that they would gladly have accepted peace had the terms been at all consistent with national honour; but the Russians insisted that, as a preliminary, Moldavia and Wallachia should be delivered to them. The negotiation, therefore, was speedily concluded, and hostilities again commenced. In May 1770, Romanzof passed the Dniester; and marched from Choczim towards Pruth, while Panin with another army arrived before Bender, which city was invested by the latter, while the former covered his operations. Romanzof attacked the Turks at Cahoul, and obtained over them a complete victory, which compelled the grand vizier to repass the Danube. In the mean time, the fortress of Kilianova, and of Akerman or Bialogorod, had surrendered by capitulation. The strong fortress of Bender resisted until reduced to rubbish; the fortress of Brailow also was abandoned by its garrison, and immediately fell into the hands of the Russians. A Russian fleet had likewise entered the Mediterranean, and landing a body of forces upon the Morea, induced the Greeks to revolt from the Turkish government; Russian intrigues disunited the Tartar chiefs; Palestine revolted from Turkish sway, and Ali Bey chased the representative of the sultan from Cairo. The Turks were now so completely humbled, that they would willingly have received peace on very hard terms; but the demands of the Russians again rose with their success. They commenced the campaign in 1771 with strong hopes of bringing the Turks to their own terms, but their success for some time did not equal their expectations; for though Dolgorouki, in spite of an army of 50,000 men by whom it was defended, made himself master of Crim Tartary, the Russians durst not attack the grand vizier amid the recesses of the Balkans. The Turks had seized the fort of Giurgevo; and in Wallachia they were so powerful that Repnin refused to attack them. Essen who succeeded him, though he attacked the Turkish army, only evinced that Repnin's apprehensions had been too well-founded, since, after a severe conflict, he retreated with the loss of 3,000 men. This victory inspired the Turks with new hopes, and they resolved to winter on the north of the Danube; but instead of being able to remain on the north of the river, they found it impossible to maintain their ground on the south. The Turkish army divided into two bodies,

were attacked almost at the same instant, and both were defeated, while an immense plunder fell into the hands of the Russians. The fort of Babadagh thereupon surrendered; the vizier with his remaining forces retired behind the Balkan; Giurgevo was retaken; and the Turks were forced to evacuate Wallachia, while the Russian fleet ravaged all their maritime possessions, and threatened Constantinople itself. Depressed by accumulated misfortunes, the Turks earnestly desired peace. Many sacrifices were offered with the concurrence of Austria and France, for the purpose of procuring an accommodation; but the Russians demanded either that they should enjoy the free navigation of the Black Sea, retain possession of the city of Azof, and be allowed a certain sum as an indemnification for their expenses; or that the Crimea, Budziac Tartary, and the extensive territory bounded by the Cimmerian Bosphorus and the northern bank of the Danube, should be yielded to them in perpetual possession. The negotiations which had been carried on during a whole year, terminated fruitlessly in March 1773, and each party prepared for a renewal of hostilities. After several unimportant skirmishes, Romanzof passed the Danube at the head of 87,000 men, and marched towards Silistria, which was defended by 24,000 men. To oppose the progress of the Russians, and to relieve the place, 50,000 men were despatched by the vizier, who compelled Romanzof to retire hastily, abandoning his ammunition and other military stores. At the moment of this return of prosperity the sultan Mustapha closed his days.

Abdul Hamid.] Romanzof's army was powerfully re-enforced; and, in 1774, he repassed the Danube in spite of every effort of the Turks to prevent him. Many engagements took place, in which the Russians were uniformly victorious, while from the Caucasus to the Danube the Ottoman power was pressed upon by their forces. The Turks were now entirely dispirited; multitudes laid down their arms; and comparatively few of them remained obedient to their officers. In such a situation, it became necessary to accede to whatever terms the Russians chose to dictate, and Romanzof was careful that they should be sufficiently advantageous for his country. The Crimea was declared to be independent; Kilburn, Kerche, Jenickala, and the country between the Bog and the Dnieper, were ceded to the Russians, who were also to enjoy the free navigation of the Turkish seas, and to be permitted to pass the strait called the Dardanelles; some stipulations were made in favour of the inhabitants of Moldavia, Wallachia, and the Greek islands, which had been in the power of the Russians, and were now to be restored; and the Russians were to retain possession of Azof and Taganrog; but, except the places which have been mentioned, agreed to relinquish all their other conquests Austria gained the Buckovine by the same treaty. The terms of peace had been dictated by the Russians themselves, and it might therefore have been expected that they would have scrupulously adhered to them; but the ease with which they had obtained terms so favourable, made them despise their neighbours, and wait with eagerness for an opportunity of profiting by the confusion of the Turkish affairs, and the irresolution of Turkish counsels. Their conduct, after peace had been concluded, was extremely haughty, resembling that of masters rather than that of allies. Regretting the necessity which had forced them to submit to a treaty so degrading, and resenting the unmerited haughtiness of their late conquerors, the Turks could not patiently brook the many insults which were offered to them; and they resolved once more, if possible, to retrieve by war the

honour of the nation. War was declared by the Turks in 1787. Mansour, a sheik of the Kooban Tartars, who had lately been considered as a disaffected subject, was the first to commence active hostilities with the enemies of the Porte. He led the hordes of Tartars over whom he had established his influence, against the Russians; but found his disorderly rabble unfit to withstand the regular forces of Potemkin who vanquished him in several engagements. The island of Taman, and the Crimea, were likewise attacked by the Turks; but in this quarter too they were repelled by the Russians. Joseph emperor of Germany, though he had no legitimate cause of quarrel, declared that he would assist the Russians his allies with an army of 80,000 men. This army was levied, and advanced to the invasion of Turkey in four bodies, but for some time, the Austrians met those misfortunes which the evident injustice of their cause merited. Choczim, indeed, after a resolute and skilful defence, surrendered to the invaders; but the Bannat was ravaged by the Turkish arms. To retrieve the honour of the Austrian arms, and to rescue the empire from that danger which seemed to threaten it, the army in Croatia was put under Laudohn's command, and his experience and bravery quickly re-established the affairs of that part of the army; Dubicza and Novi fell before him, and he was only constrained to abandon the siege of Gradisca by a flood occasioned by the autumnal rains. But the justice of the Turkish cause seemed to infuse a vigour into their conduct which, for some time, they had seldom displayed; and had their discipline been equal to their intrepidity, the Austrians might soon have repented of their unprovoked aggression. Laudohn having returned to the attack of Gradisca, notwithstanding the courage of its defenders, it soon fell into his hands. Belgrade was next invested, and within a month was compelled to open its gates. The opposition of the Turks, though vigorous, was no longer successful; and almost without a struggle Czerenitz and Bucharest in Wallachia, and Cladova in Servia, yielded to different parties of the Austrian army. One cause of the reiterated losses of the Turks, certainly was, that the Russians—who had hitherto confined themselves to a few trifling movements—now sent against them an army of 150,000 men. This powerful army, under the command of Potemkin, Romanzof, Repnin, and Soltikow, approached from the banks of the Bog. Oczakow was besieged by Potemkin, and after an obstinate defence of four months, was taken in December 1788; and while the Austrians were receiving the submissions of the places just mentioned, the Russians made themselves masters of Akerman and Bender. The death of Abdul Hamid occurred in the opening of 1789, when Selim III. the only son of the sultan Mustapha, mounted the imperial throne.

Selim III.] In June 1790, a conference was held at Reichenbach, for the purpose of reconciling the hostile nations. At this conference, the ministers of Britain, Holland, and Prussia, with those of Austria and Poland, were present, and peace was established between the Austrians and the Turks, upon a treaty one article of which was that all conquests made by the former should be relinquished. The Russians were thus left to manage the contest by themselves. Suwarrow, in 1790, took the fortress of Ismael. Such had been the determined valour of the defendants, that the Russians lost 10,000 men in the attack; and such was the brutal and ungenerous cruelty of the assailants, that the garrison, amounting to 30,000 men, were massacred in cold blood. Varna, the bulwark of Constantinople towards the Balkan was now threatened, and the war on the

side of the Turks had evidently become a war of defence, and on the side of the Russians a war for the extension of their territories, when the British interfered with more resolution, declaring that unless peace was made with the Porte on equitable conditions, they would join their arms to the oppressed Mahommedans, to curb that spirit of conquest which the Russians had so openly displayed. The Russians at first resented the interference; but gradually became less exorbitant in their demands, and at length consented to peace on condition of retaining Ockzakow and the territory extending from the Bog to the Dniester. These were ceded to Russia, by the treaty of Yassi, in 1792, together with an extraordinary right of interfering in the provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia, that their respective hospodars should be continued in office seven years, and not removable but by the consent of Russia. "To this agreement, however," says Dr Walsh, "they did not adhere. The then reigning hospodars were deposed before their time; and when the Russians remonstrated, the Bosphorus was closed against their ships. Taking umbrage at these causes of complaint, in 1806 general Michelson was despatched with an army of 60,000 men, who crossed the Dniester, took Bender and Chotzim with little resistance, and entered Yassi, the capital of Moldavia. From hence he proceeded to Bucharest, the capital of Wallachia, where he found a Turkish force, which had been sent against him by Mustapha Bairactar, the energetic Ayan of Rutshuck. These, however, he soon defeated; when his approach was known, the inhabitants rose upon the Turks, attacked them suddenly with all kinds of weapons; and, with the aid of a small advanced guard of the Russians, drove them out of the town, leaving 1,500 dead in the streets. He then entered Bucharest, and took entire possession of the 3 provinces of Bessarabia, Moldavia, and Wallachia; not leaving a Turkish corps or fortress on the north side of the Danube, with the exception of Giurgevo; and he prepared immediately to pass over to the other side. A tumultuary army was now hastily collected at Adrianople, of troops from the provinces of Asia, and moved forward with the janissaries to the Danube; they mutinied, however, on their march, massacred some of the officers who wished to introduce European discipline among them, and when they at length arrived at the scene of action, were so disorganised, that they effected nothing against the Russians, who remained in almost undisturbed possession of the province till the year 1810; when the armies on both sides were augmented to 200,000 men, and a fierce and sanguinary contest ensued, which, perhaps, never was surpassed. The Russians passed the Danube in three places. Their direct progress would have been from Giurgevo to Rutshuck; but at this latter place the passage was impracticable, either at the town or near it, as the banks were steep and high, and defended with Turkish batteries. They therefore crossed over above it, at Ostrova, near Widdin, and below it at Hirsova and Tourtoukay, and laid siege to Rutshuck. The town was vigorously defended; and the Russians were repulsed in a desperate attack, in which they lost 6,000 men. Kaminsky made also a similar assault on the intrenched camp at Shumla; but here, too, he was driven back with great carnage. The Turks, though unacquainted with regular discipline in the field, make a fierce and sanguinary resistance when attacked behind their ramparts. On these occasions they issued their memorable bulletin—'That they had taken such a number of infidels' heads, that they would serve as a bridge by which the faithful might pass over to the other world.' It is to the vigorous defence of these two places, and the losses

sustained before them, that the derangement of the Russian plans, and the final failure of the campaign, are generally attributed. In the month of September, Kaminsky left Langeron before Rutshuck, and with his disposable force suddenly attacked the Turks at Bayne. They defended themselves with desperate valour; but were at length defeated, with the loss of 12,000 men in killed and wounded; and Rutshuck was compelled to surrender, with all the Turkish flotilla lying before it, and Giurgevo on the other side. In order to create a diversion, the Turks now sent a fleet into the Black Sea, and threatened an attack on the Crimea. Notwithstanding this, the Russians concentrated their forces in Bulgaria, and the Grand Vizir was obliged to retreat before them, recross the Balkan, and take up a position at Adrianople; leaving, however, the strong and impregnable fortresses of Varna on the sea-coast, and Shumla on the ascent of the mountains, well-secured at the other side.

Mahommed II.] The feeble Selim, and his successor Mustapha, had both been strangled; and Mahommed had been called to the throne, who even then displayed the vigour which since has distinguished him. He set up the standard of the Prophet at Daud Pasha, a large plain two miles from Constantinople, and issued a hatascherif, that all Mussulmen should rally round it. In this way he assembled, in a short time, a large army; appointed a new grand vizier, whom he sent on with the troops; and returned to the city. The new vizier, Ahmed Aga, was a man of the same energy as the sultan, and had distinguished himself by his defence of Ibrail. He immediately descended from the mountains, forced the detached corps of Russians in Bulgaria to recross the Danube, and made a fierce attack upon Rutshuck, defended by the Russian general Kutusof. The Russians, hard pressed, transported the inhabitants to the other side of the river, set fire to the town in four quarters, and then retreated themselves. The Turks rushed into the burning town, put a stop to the conflagration, and took up their position there. The grand vizier having thus driven the Russians to the opposite shore, was now determined to follow them; and he made the attempt in three places, Widdin, Rutshuck, and Silistria. He succeeded at Widdin, and established 30,000 men in Wallachia. He also succeeded at Rutshuck, took possession of a large island in the river called Slobodse, and, in perfect confidence, passed the greater part of his army to the other side, and established them in an entrenched camp. Kutusof was not idle; he immediately availed himself of the vizier's crossing over, and detached 8,000 men, under general Markof, to attack the camp he had left behind. A Turkish camp is formed without any regularity. The grand vizier's tent is always conspicuous in the centre, and becomes the nucleus round which all the rest are pitched, as every man chooses to place them. It is, however, their strong-hold, to which they always retire, as a wild animal to its lair, and they defend it with the same fierceness and obstinacy. On this occasion they were completely surprised; the whole of the camp, including the general's tent, fell into the hands of the Russians, and the fugitive Turks crowded into Rutshuck. Here they were cannonaded by the artillery of their own abandoned camp, and general Langeron from the other side directed one hundred pieces of cannon to bear upon them. The vizier having heard of this misfortune, threw himself into a little boat, and availing himself of a storm of wind and rain, he pushed across, and landed in safety; but the Russians now brought up their flotilla, and intercepted all communication between the divided portion of the Turkish army. They next attacked and carried the

island, and turned the guns on the entrenched camp of the Turks, who were thus cut off from all communication or supply. In this state they endured the severest privations; and after feeding on the flesh of their horses, and giving up all hope of relief, they were compelled to surrender, having lost 10,000 men in the different assaults made on them. This was the last effort of the combatants. The Turks, who had entered Wallachia at Widdin, retired to the other side, and the grand vizier, having received great reinforcements, concentrated them at Rutshuck; but while the combatants were preparing to renew the sanguinary conflicts, the exhausted state of the Turks, and the critical state of the Russians, invaded by the French, induced them to come to an accommodation; and the peace of Bucharest, concluded in 1812, gave another accession of territory to the Russians, extending their frontier from the Dniester to the Pruth, and assigning to them all the country that lay between the two rivers, comprising Bessarabia, and a considerable part of Moldavia. The Russians upon this withdrew from the provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia, which they had occupied for seven years."

Greek Revolution.] During the sitting of the congress of Laybach, at the moment when the Neapolitan States were invaded by an Austrian army, a revolt of the Greeks against their Turkish masters burst forth in Moldavia, Wallachia, the Morea, and the Grecian islands. It appears that ever since the meeting of the congress of Vienna, there had existed a society of young Greeks, under the name of *Hetæria*, which had at first met for literary purposes, but soon assumed a political character. The members of the Hetæria responded to the call of prince Alexander Ypsilanti with enthusiasm, and arose to rescue Moldavia and Wallachia from the Turkish yoke. At the same time, the Morea and the Grecian islands declared their independence. These news were received with disapprobation by the congress of Laybach, and in 1822 the deputies of the descendents of Miltiades and Pericles were refused their demands at the Congress of Verona. In the beginning of the struggle the Greeks suffered several severe defeats from the Turks: Jusuff Pacha defeated them on the 13th of May 1821 at Galatz, and on the 19th of June the sacred battalion—as it was called—with its heroical chief Jordaki was exterminated at Rimnick, while Prince Ypsilanti himself was constrained to take refuge within the Austrian territory, where by one of the most atrocious acts of despotism he was arrested and sent to the fortress of Munkatsch.

The Greeks entered on the road to freedom with better success in the Morea and in the islands. These districts, as we have already hinted, had never been possessed by the Turks in the same security as the rest of Greece. It was only since the year 1770—the date of Catherine's lamentable expedition—that they had reigned without competitors in the Morea. At the period of the revolution, the goods of the Turks in the Morea became national property. On the guarantee of this property the Greek government succeeded in raising a loan in England, which considerably aided their operations. On the 23d of September 1821 the Greeks took Tripolizza, the capital of the Morea, and on the 4th of November a constitution was published at Missolonghi for the western continent of Hellas, comprehending Acarnania, Ætolia, and Epirus. On the 11th of the same month the constitution for the eastern continent, comprehending Attica, Bœotia, Eubœa, Phocis, Locris, Doris, and the freed parts of Thessaly and Macedonia, was published at Salona; and on the 1st of December the constitution of the Peloponnesus. On the 1st of January 1822 the political exis-

tence and independence of all Greece was proclaimed; and on the 18th day of the same month the outline of a provisionary constitution was published, which was subsequently adopted by the national assembly at Astro, in April 1823. In the meantime the Greeks gained signal naval victories over the Turks at Mitylene and in the Gulf of Patras, and on the 16th of December 1822 Napoli di Romania was taken by capitulation, and the seat of the government transferred to that city from Tripolizza. The campaigns of 1823 and 1824 were alike inglorious and disastrous to the Turks. In March 1825 Ibrahim, son of the viceroy of Egypt, took possession of Navarin. With this fierce and warlike chief the Greeks maintained a bloody and desolating struggle for the Peninsula, and those who knew not the elastic and self-recovering power, which the love of liberty possesses within itself, began to despair of the ultimate success of the cause of Grecian independence. But amid all the disasters that befell them from without and from within, was never heard one flying rumour of the Greeks submitting to Turkish power, or their treachery to the cause of their own freedom. Greece was sound at the core; and whatever might be her "searching of hearts for the division of her leaders," there were among them no Abisbals or Morillos; they knew but one battle-cry, which was "Freedom or Death!" and this they shouted as they rushed on with daily diminishing numbers to the bloody strife, until their devoted heroism at last roused the sympathies of their Christian brethren throughout Europe, and the combined fleets of Britain, Russia, and France, swept the Grecian seas of the Turkish fleet, and relieved the Morea of the presence of its ruthless invaders. Previous to this interference of arms a treaty had been signed by these powers requiring from the belligerents an immediate armistice, as a preliminary step to an amicable reconciliation being effected between them on the following basis:—namely, that the Greeks should hold of the Sultan as of a superior lord; and in consequence of this superiority should pay to the Ottoman Empire an annual tribute, the amount of which should be fixed once for all by a common agreement; that they should be governed by the authorities they should themselves choose and nominate, but in the nomination of whom the Porte should have a determinate voice; and that to bring about a complete separation between the individuals of the two nations, and to prevent the collisions which are the inevitable consequences of so long a struggle, the Greeks should enter upon possession of the Turkish property situated either on the Continent or in the Isles of Greece, on the condition of indemnifying the former proprietors, either by the payment of an annual sum, to be added to the tribute which is to be paid to the Porte, or by some other transaction of the same nature. It was the violation of the demanded armistice in the presence of the combined fleets sent to enforce it, which led to the collision between the combined and Turkish fleets in the Bay of Navarin. In March 1829, the French and British ambassadors intimated to the Sultan the intention of their respective governments to acknowledge and maintain the independence of the Greeks. According to the protocol presented to the Porte, the new Grecian State is to comprise on the Continent, all the territory south of a line to be drawn from the Gulf of Volo to the Gulf of Ambracia or Arta, the *Sinus Ambracicus* of the ancients, also the adjacent islands, comprehending Eubœa or Negropont, and the Cyclades. An annual tribute of 1,500,000 piastres is to be paid by Greece: the value of the Turkish piastre, compared with that of the Spanish dollar, being to be fixed once for all by mutual consent. Greece is to pay the first year only a fifth, or at the

most a third of this tribute, to be gradually increased annually, so that the maximum of 1,500,000 piastres is to be paid after the fourth year. Greece is to remain under the sovereignty of the Porte, with the form of government best calculated to secure its religious and civil liberty. The government is to be as nearly as possible in a monarchical form, and to be hereditary in the family of a Christian Prince, to be chosen for the first time by the three Powers in concert with the Porte; but he is not to be a member of the reigning families of Russia, France, or Britain.

War with Russia.] It has been alleged by some politicians that the real source of the Greek revolution might be found within the Russian dominions: certain it is that as soon as that movement commenced, Russia began to augment her armies on the Pruth and Dniester; on the 26th of April 1828, the Russians passed the Pruth and advanced into the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia, and on the 9th of June, the emperor Nicholas crossed the Danube and entered Bulgaria. The first operations of the war were preceded or rather accompanied by a manifesto and declaration on the part of the Russians. In the first of these documents, the emperor complained of the violation of the treaty of Bucharest in 1812, and of the subsequent treaty of Akermann,—of the illegal seizure of Russian vessels and confiscation of their cargoes,—of the closing the passage of the Bosphorus to the great injury of the Russian trade in the Black Sea,—of the intrigues of the Porte with Persia to prevent her making peace with Russia. The declaration farther charged Turkey with violating her pledge to the Servians, and her guarantee to the provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia. An amnesty was to be granted to the Servians; instead of which the Turks invaded their territory, and made a dreadful massacre. The privileges of the principalities were to be guaranteed; instead of which a system was established of the most sweeping plunder; and the incursions of the Turks inhabiting the left bank of the Kuban were encouraged. Finally, after enumerating his grounds of complaint, the emperor declared war against the Porte, and stated the objects of the war to be:—To enforce the due and effectual observance of those treaties which Turkey has violated; and to secure the inviolable liberty of the Black Sea, and the free navigation of the Bosphorus.

War having commenced the sultan did not dispute the Russian advance into the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia, but concentrated his strength on Shumla, and determined to defend the defiles of the Balkan mountains. In the course of the month of July 1828, the Russian main force invested the strong fortress of Silistria on the Danube and Varna on the coast of the Euxine. The latter place surrendered chiefly through the treachery of Jussuff Pasha, but the Russians were compelled to raise the siege of Silistria on the 10th of November, and to retire into winter-cantonments in Moldavia and Wallachia. The second campaign has hitherto been attended with more decided advantage to Russia; but although Silistria in Europe, and Erzeraom in Asia, have fallen, and the Russian arms have passed the Balkan, it is far from being certain that the Turkish empire will at this time be overthrown. At the same time we cannot shut our eyes to the fact that the political power of Turkey has long been on the wane. The Pasha of Egypt is in a great measure independent of the sultan; the States of Barbary scarcely regard the name of the Porte; and his power is almost unknown among the tribes of Arabia. The Pasha of Bagdad reigns uncontrolled over Irak-Arabi and a considerable part of Mesopotamia; the coasts of Syria are peopled with tribes that never felt

the Turkish yoke; and the hordes that line the Caspian acknowledge no allegiance to any power on earth but their own rude chiefs. Thus Armenia and Curdistan, Mesopotamia and Syria, Arabia and Egypt, stand ready to drop the semblance of subjection, which they wear as it were by sufferance, whenever it pleases them. Still we do not yet apprehend the dismemberment of Turkey by Russia or any other European power. The interests of France, England, Austria, and Prussia are opposed to it; and we do not believe that Russia would be able single-handed to effect it in opposition to these powers. In her campaign of last year she was obviously baffled and repulsed by the Turks; and her own political fabric is not much better cemented than that of the nation whom she affects to despise as barbarians and infidels. We do not comprehend the justice of giving up the Turk, because he is ignorant and infidel, to the power of the Russian, because he calls himself Christian. The rights of the Ottoman government are equally sacred with those of the Russian; and we are disposed to think him the best politician, as well as the best friend of man, who, following the path of even-handed justice, faithfully adheres to the laws of nature and of nations, leaving the fulfilment of prophecies to Him who in the infinitude of his omniscience uttered them, and who in the omnipotence of his power will accomplish them to the honour of his justice, wisdom, and goodness.

The present sultan is a man not in the prime, but still in the vigour of life. He succeeded his brother, Mustapha, in the year 1808, and is now the only survivor of thirty children—fifteen sons and fifteen daughters—which his father left; and is the last of the male race of Mahomet of an age fit to reign. His eldest son prematurely died; and it was reported that he had been made away with by his own father, lest he should be set up in his place. It is known, however, that the boy died of the small-pox, and that his father has given an extraordinary example to his subjects, by having his surviving children vaccinated; and so has shown, in one instance at least, a disposition to adopt European improvements in things not merely military. He is, moreover, a man well-versed in oriental literature, writes and understands Arabic well, and his haticherifs, which he always dictates, and sometimes writes with his own hand, are admired for their style and composition. He is not a man of a morose or cruel disposition in his own family; on the contrary, he has several children by different mothers, to all of whom he is affectionately attached; and in his ordinary intercourse in private life he is urbane and affable. His public conduct, however, has been marked by extraordinary fierceness and unrelenting rigour, not only to Rayas, but to Turks themselves; and in this he has shown the utmost disregard to human life, and not a strict adherence to human obligations. But whatever his conduct has been to his own subjects, to those of other nations he has afforded the most inviolable protection. He has discontinued the barbarous practice of his predecessors, in sending ambassadors to the Seven Towers, instead of which, whenever they disagree, and are disposed to depart, he affords them every facility, and those of their nation who please to remain are in security.

CHAP. II.—PHYSICAL FEATURES—MOUNTAINS—RIVERS—CLIMATE—SOIL—PRODUCTIONS.

European Turkey forms a large triangular peninsula, which in very ancient times may have been connected with the continent of Asia, from

which it has been disjoined by some tremendous convulsion. Excluding the two principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia, the Danube, the Save, and the Unna, form the base and northern boundary of this country; cape Matapan, in the Morea, is the apex of the triangle. Its sides are washed by the Euxine, Ægean, and Adriatic seas, excepting a small portion to the N.W. where the narrow strip of Dalmatia intervenes. The coasts from the Cataro on the W. to the mouths of the Danube on the E. present the most irregular configuration, being deeply indented with gulfs, between which the salient points of mountainous ridges extend into the sea. The interior is everywhere intersected by long and connected chains of mountains running parallel to the base from E. to W. Concerning the extent and direction of these chains we are by no means well-informed. Between them, large and also narrow valleys extend, most of which are watered by streams proportioned to their extent. On the N. side of the Danube, one vast continuous plain extends to the Carpathian mountains and the Pruth. The declination of the whole country between the Balkan and the Carpathian mountains is towards the Black sea: the peninsular portion of Turkey declines partly towards the Adriatic and the Ionian seas, but mainly towards the Ægean.

The Balkan Mountains.] The Balkan, Emineh Dagh, or Hæmus, forms the first great mountain-barrier of Turkey towards the N. This chain runs between the 42d and 43d parallels, from the termination of the Dinaric Alps near Perserin, and the sources of the Ibar and Vardar, to the Black sea, where it terminates in the abrupt promontory of Emineh, the *Hæmi extrema.* Its numerous ramifications intersect in various directions the whole of European Turkey south of the Danube. The summits of this chain exhibit immense masses of naked granite, and accumulations of rocky debris. In Servia and Bulgaria these heights are covered with forests. The main chain presents seven natural divisions. The first commencing near Perserin, extends from the sources of the Ibar to those of the Sidnitza, under the name of Tchardagh, the ancient *Scardus.* The next division bears the names of Glioubottin, Argentaro, and Egrisou or *Orbelus.* The eastern part of Egrison and the mountains of Ghiustendil form the third division. The fourth division of the Balkan terminates to the S. of Samakow in the Doubnitza or *Scomius.* From Samakow the chain runs E. and N.E. to the sources of the Kamtchik or *Panysus.* The rivers Vid, Osma, and Jantra take their rise here and flow towards the Danube. From the Kamtchik to the sources of the Touz-cassri the chain runs E.; and from the latter river to Cape Emineh it forms a circular sweep. The three latter divisions compose the Emineh Dagh or ancient *Hæmus.* The most elevated summit of the Balkan is the *Orbelus,* whose elevation is certainly not under 1,500 toises, or about 9,660 English feet.

The principal branches of the Balkan are eight in number, three of which lie on the N. side of the main chain. Beginning at the river Ibar we observe a ridge striking off at the point of junction of the first and second divisions of the main chain, to the S.E. of Pristina, and separating the sources of the Eastern Morava from those of the Toplitza. This chain at first bears the name of Glioubotin; but to the E. of Novibazar it assumes that of Jaztribovatz. At Mount Kopanneg it divides into two secondary branches, one of which runs W. along the Ibar, under the name of Mount Chellian, to its confluence with the western Morava, and the other terminates in the heights of Jastrebatz on the left bank of the Eastern Morava. At the sources of the Strouma or Grand Karasou, a se-

cond subsidiary chain strikes off towards the N. running between the Isker, the Danube, and the Morava. From Ghiustendil to the northern sources of the Isker, and from these to the Nissava, this branch is called the Khodja Balkan, and runs in a northernly direction. It then runs N.W. and takes the denominations of Vidick, Stara, and Herlanie. Turning again N. it receives the name of Haidukki. Near the origin of the Boreska it divides into several branches, the principal one of which runs along the Boreska to the Danube at Trajan's Rock, or the Iron-gate Mountain, opposite Orsova, where the Balkan becomes connected with the Transylvanian or Krapack mountains, the Danube here forcing its way between them. The third and last northern branch of the Balkan is rather an irregular tract of mountainous country than a series of connected heights. It extends between the tributary streams of the right bank of the Lower Danube, and those which run directly towards the sea.

Among the southern ramifications of the Balkan, commencing at the E., we observe a long chain of mountains which may be regarded as the connecting link betwixt the Balkan and the great chain of Asiatic Turkey, the Taurus. This chain, called the Strandschea, has the Black Sea on the N.E.; the sea of Marmora on the S.; and the Tondja and the Erkene, two of the principal tributaries of the Maritza, on the W. It is mostly covered with thick forests; about 11 leagues from Constantinople it presents a series of fertile and cultivated eminences. Near the sources of the Erkene, a secondary branch strikes off towards the S.W., and joins the Telkiur-dagh, the prolongment of which forms the peninsula of Gallipoli. Proceeding westwards we find the Despoto-dagh, the *Rhodope* of the ancients, striking off from the main chain at Doubnitza, and running S.E. towards the sources of the Arda, around which it takes a semicircular sweep, and then runs nearly E. to Cape Makri. This is a very lofty and rugged chain. The Karasou or Nev-ro-kop-dagh strikes off from the main chain with the Despoto-dagh, and terminates near Cape Asperosa opposite to the island of Thassos. Between the Strouma on the E. and the Egridere on the W., runs a long ridge of mountains bearing the name of Cercine or Kerkine. Extending along the Vardar to its embochure, this ridge divides itself into three branches, which running into the sea form the gulfs of Salonica and Contessa.

The passes of the Balkan are nearly impracticable during winter. In the first division of the main chain the pass of Katchianik, by the Tchar-dagh, establishes a communication between Servia and Romelia, or the towns of Pristina and Uskup. It is defended by fortified works. In the second subdivision of the Balkan there are five passes. One of these passes is under the Glioubotin-dagh, and another under Mount Argentaro; the other three are narrow *cols* communicating with the two former. Across the third section of the Balkan two foot-roads lead from Ghiustendil to Medolsa and Tchardak. In the fourth division a foot-road conducts from Sophia to Doubnitza, and three foot-roads from Sophia to Ghiustendil, and from Samakow to Doubnitza and Menlik. In the fifth subdivision there are six passes within a line of 51 leagues. Three of these lead from Samakow to Bagna and Kostendje; a fourth extends from Ikliman on the Vid, to Tzapar Bazardjik on the Maritza; the fifth communicates with Loftcha in Bulgaria; and the sixth extends between the towns of Kabrova and Kezanlik, forming a part of the great road from Roustchouk to Adrianople. The pass of Demir-Kapi, communicating betwixt Stareka in Bulgaria on the Kamtchik, and Salemno on the Islandjik,

is the only practicable pass in the sixth section. In the last subdivision there are three defiles. Two of these begin at Carnabat in Romelia, and proceeding northwards, communicate, one on the W. with Eski Djuma, and the other on the E. with Shumla; the third pass opens a communication betwixt Varna and Bourgas, both on the coasts of the Black Sea. Of all these passes the most remarkable is the Sulu Derbend or *Porta Trajani*, through which the great road from Vienna to Constantinople, by Belgrade and Sophia, runs. It is a deep defile defended by two forts, the one at Ikliman, and the other near Kostendje.

The Hellenic Mountains.] From Mount Scardus or Argentaro, one of the highest summits of the Balkan, and which may be regarded as the great culminating point of the whole mountainous system of Turkey, a chain runs S. and S.E., under the ancient names of *Pindus*, *Cithæron*, and *Parnes*, and terminates in the *Sunium Promontorium*, now cape Colonna. This great chain divides the northern continent of Greece into two divisions of nearly equal breadth, and gives birth to all the most considerable rivers which flow off, on its opposite sides, but in no instance cross it. On the east side, besides many small lateral ridges, it sends off two principal ranges, which inclose Thessaly on the north and south. These are the Cambunian mountains, which, connecting the central ridge of Pindus with the lofty group of Olympus, separate Macedonia from Thessaly,—and Mount *Œta*, which, running E. to the gulf of Zeitun or Malia, forms at its termination the famous pass of Thermopylæ. Mount *Othrys* to the N. of Zeitun, may be regarded as a subordinate branch to Œta. Mount Olympus is separated only by the narrow ravine, anciently called Tempe, from Ossa and Pelion, which shut up Thessaly on the east.—On the western side of the central range, the whole country to the Ionian sea, N. of the gulf of Arta, is covered by a series of ridges, not running off laterally, but disposed in lines nearly parallel to the central chain, and separated by deep valleys. One of these ridges nearest the coast was anciently known by the appellation of the *Acroceraunian Mountains*; another farther north, and more inland, was *Mount Tomarus*. They are now called the mountains of Chimarra and Mount Tomohr.—At some distance from the head of the gulf of Arta, is the ridge of Makronoros or the Big Mountain. North of this range is the vast and apparently insulated mountain-mass of Tzumerka; and still loftier mountains raise themselves to the N.E. and N. of this, forming the eastern barrier to the valley of the Aracthus or river of Arta, and the western limit of the valley of the Aspropotamo or Achelous.—Another range of lofty mountains called Metzoukel or Moutzkeli forms the eastern boundary of the valley of Joannina, rising to an elevation of 3,000 feet above it. This valley is wholly surrounded with mountains, and is itself 1,200 feet above the level of the sea.—That part of the Pindus chain which leads from Joannina into Thessaly, is called the Zagora and Metzovo. To the N. of this is the chain of Mauronoros or the Black Mountain; and still farther, in the same direction, are the ranges of Tzebel and Samarina, which, according to Dr Holland's information, are the loftiest in Albania. The chain of Pindus passes still farther N. near Ochrida, dividing Illyria from Macedonia, and giving origin to many large rivers, and extends itself to the central ridge of Argentaro.—A long and narrow ridge occupies the island of Eubœa, and is evidently continued in the outermost chain of islands called the Cyclades. Another chain of these islands may be con-

sidered as a prolongation of this great central ridge from the promontory of Sunium. We reserve farther details for our 12th chapter.

The mountains of Peloponnesus, or the Morea, are as numerous as those in the north of Greece, and present rather a singular configuration. A long ridge, bent into a circular form, incloses the central plateau or basin of Arcadia; and five spurs, or subordinate ranges, run off from the different sides of this circular chain to the five prominent points of the peninsula. The details of the mountain-geography of the Morea will be given in our 13th chapter.

None of the mountains of continental Greece, except perhaps Olympus and Athos, have been measured either barometrically or geometrically; but some of them have been estimated. Mount Orbelus, the northern boundary of the country, has, according to Pouqueville, its summit perpetually covered with snow, and must therefore, according to the laws that fix the lower limit of constant congelation, exceed, in this latitude, 8,500 feet of elevation, its actual height is supposed to be not under 9,660 feet. None of the other mountains of this system, however, whether they be insulated or in groups and ranges, attain the circle of perpetual snow. The elevation of the great central range of Pindus, is vaguely estimated by Dr Holland at 7,000 feet; and the elevation of the Dervent pass, over which he crossed into Thessaly from Joannina, at 4,500 feet.

The notices which we have been able to obtain respecting the altitudes of the Grecian mountains, though very imperfect, and of small value, separately considered, yet enable us to conclude with tolerable certainty that the highest mountains are in the northern parts, and that the great central chain of Pindus, with its branches, may be considered as nearly equal in height to the Carpathians,—as rather higher than the chain of the Appenines,—and as not having more than half of the altitude of the Swiss and Italian Alps. The reader will find farther details respecting the mountains of Greece in our chapter devoted to the topography of that region. In the meantime we subjoin a table of the height of Mount Athos, and of other mountains in the Grecian islands, taken barometrically by captain Gautier, and which therefore may be deemed accurate:—

		Metres.	English feet.
Mount Athos,		2,066	6,776
—— Kerki,	Isle of Samos,	1,461	4,752
—— Jupiter,	— Naxos,	1,015	3,329
—— Olympus,	— Metelin,	988	3,290
—— Christo,	— Stanchio,	862	2,988
—— Cochila,	— Scyros,	789	2,687
—— St Elias,	— Melos,	780	2,658
—— Do.	— Paros,	765	2,609
—— Delphi,	— Scopolo,	700	2,296
—— St Elias,	— Santorini,	587	1,925
—— Do.	— Zea,	567	1,860
—— Do.	— Ipsara,	547	1,795
—— Veglia,	— Stampalia,	484	1,591
—— St Elias,	— Mycone,	399	1,309
—— Therma,	— Lemnos,	365	1,194
—— Chlidi,	— Lera,	328	1,076
—— St Elias,	— Tenedos,	192	632

Annales de Chimie, Dec. 1821,—Tom. 18th, p. 433—437.

The Dinaric Alps.] This chain of mountains, which may be regarded as belonging to the vast system of the Alps, lies to the N.W. of the Balkan,

and runs through the Turkish provinces of Albania and Bosnia into the Austrian States. It divides the tributary streams of the Danube, or more properly of its ally the Save, from those rivers which flow towards the N.E. coast of the Adriatic. It detaches itself from the Julian Alps at Mount Kleck, near the sources of the Kulpa, in N. lat. 45° 28′, and running S.E. to the sources of the Kerka, intersects Military Croatia, and touches the frontiers of Dalmatia. From the head of the Kerka to that of the Verbas, the chain runs E. through Bosnia, and receives the denomination of Chator and Salliava. It then turns S.E. towards the Bosna, forming in this part of its course the Mount Ivan; and, running on towards the Drin, forms Mount Zamora. It then separates Bosnia from the sandshak of Scutari, and joins the Balkan near Perserin. This chain is known also by the names of Baba, Rachka, Bori, and Djamous-dagh.—The branches of the Dinaric Alps are little known. One of them, Mount Zrina, is covered with forests, and separates the basin of the Kulpa from that of the Unna.—Another range called the mountains of Plisinicza, the highest in Croatia, being 5,900 feet in elevation, runs S. from the source of the Kovanno to near the source of the Kerka.—Another runs off from Mount Chator, divides the basins of the Unna and Verbas, and sends out towards the N.E., between the Sanna and Unna, a remarkable branch known under the names of the Czerna-gora, Tzervlievitza, Lopata, or Gliermetch.—A third branch of the main chain runs between the Verbas and Bosna, under the names of Vranja, Radovem, and Vlasich.—A fourth strikes off to the W. of Novibazar in the Soubor and Slatibor mountains, and runs between the Western Morava and Drin, after which it divides into two branches, one running N.W., and the other N.E.—Near the source of the Kerka, the ridge of Prologh detaches itself from the main chain, and runs S.E. towards the frontiers of Dalmatia and Bosnia, between the Cettina and the Lower Narenta.—Another southern branch runs between the basin of the Narenta and the lake of Niksiki, forcing the river to take a sudden bend. The mountains of Montenegro, already described, are a branch of these Alps. The highest points of this chain are the Kleck which rises to the altitude of 6,692 feet, and the Dinari or Dinara, the *Mons Ardius* of the ancients, which is said to attain the elevation of 7,432 feet. The principal summits of the Kapella exceed 5,310 feet in height. These mountains consist in general of grey calcareous rock, and abound in abrupt precipices and profound ravines. The principal carriage-way across them is the Caroline road from Fiume to Carlstadt, and the Josephine road from Zengg to Carlstadt. There are other smaller passes leading from Ostrovicza to Carlopago, by Bukovacz,—from Syskel on the Plicva, into the valley of the Cettina,—from Prousatz to Livno,—from Vakoup on the Verbas, to the Lower Cettina,—and from Skonicza to Bosna-serai.

The Carpathian Mountains.] In an account of Hungary we have already given a sketch of the geography of this interesting range of mountains which runs betwixt the frontiers of Austria and Turkey. To that account we now add a few particulars more intimately relating to our present subject. Near the sources of the Alauta the eastern Carpathian ridge divides into two branches. That branch which runs along the left bank of the river forms the boundaries betwixt Transylvania and the Turkish principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia. The principal summits which rise here are the Nagy-Hagymas, the Kaszony, the Piatra-Laptuie, the Tatara, and the Magura. From Pojana-Mujeri to their

termination at the Danube, the Carpathians run W. by S.W. through Transylvania and the Banat, and along the Turkish frontiers. The Mali-Stirbacz belonging to this section of the chain, which reaches the Danube and causes that river to form a cataract, seems to be the connecting link betwixt the Balkan and Carpathian systems.

Seas.—The Mediterranean.] Turkey in Europe is washed by six seas, all of which may be regarded as branches of the Mediterranean. The Mediterranean itself only surrounds the shores of the large island of Candia and a few others.

The Ægean Sea.] The Ægean sea or Grecian Archipelago, is called by the Turks Ac-Degniz, or 'the White Sea;' in contradistinction to the Cara-Degniz, or 'Black Sea;' but they give the same name to the whole Mediterranean. This sea is terminated on the N. by the shores of Romelia; on the E. by those of Anatolia; and on the S. by an imaginary line drawn from the southern extremity of the gulf of Symia, and passing along the eastern shores of the islands of Rhodes and Scarpanto, the southern shores of Candia, and the western shores of Cerigotto and Cerigo, and joining the continent again at Cape Malea. The shores of the Morea, Livadia, Thessaly, and part of Romelia form its limits towards the W. This sea is remarkable for the numerous peninsulas which project into its waters from the neighbouring continent and form many bays and gulfs, and for the innumerable isles which are scattered throughout its whole extent. The calcareous rocks which form the greater part of its shores are everywhere very steep, and present vertical strata as if they had been overturned. The navigation of the Ægean, though no longer such a formidable task as it was in ancient times, is not unattended with difficulty from the numerous little islands and rocks which rise amid its waves, and the violent winds which blow from December till February. The current arising from the sea of Marmora is not very rapid. The Archipelago was known to the ancients under a variety of names. They gave the appellation *Ægean Sea* to its northern part conceived to be terminated by a line drawn from Cape Colonna to the island of Nicaria in the neighbourhood of Samos. The *Icarian Sea* stretched to the S.E. of the isle from which it received its name. The *Sea of Myrtos* laved the shores of the Morea. The *Cretan Sea* comprehended that part of the Archipelago extending betwixt Candia or Crete, and the Cyclades or central group of islands.

The Dardanelles.] The Hellespont or Straits of the Dardanelles, connects the Ægean sea with the sea of Marmora, and separates Anatolia in Asiatic Turkey from Akttche-Ovassi, or the Thracian Chersonnesus in European Turkey. The mouth of the Strait, according to Tournefort, is 5½ miles wide. It is defended by castles built in 1659. The one on the Asiatic side is called Chanak-kalessi, and occupies a flat point immediately opposite to the European fort, so that the two batteries, (as the guns are immoveable, and are laid at right angles with the Strait,) must in the time of action bombard each other. They are assisted however by a battery of field-pieces and some works constructed by French engineers. These castles were formerly supposed to occupy the sites of the ancient Sestos and Abydos; but these must have been situated about 3 or 4 miles further northward, and were not exactly opposite to each other. About a mile and a half above the castles is the bay of Maito or *Madytus;* and two or three miles farther is a hill covered with the ruins of the ancient *Choiridocastron,* where the son of Orchan first planted the Turkish crescent on

the Thracian shore. The entrance of the Hellespont from the sea of Marmora is about a mile and three quarters wide. Mr Hobhouse says, that the banks here for several miles present a succession of scenery closely resembling that of the Welsh river Menai.

The Sea of Marmora.] Marmora, the ancient *Proconnesus*, which has obtained its name from its blue marble, has communicated it to the *Propontis*, now called the *Mare di Marmora*, or sea of Marmora. This sea is about 120 miles long, and in some places 40 miles broad. Chevalier mentions two lakes on the northern shores of the Propontis,—the one called *Kutchuck-Tchekmedge*, or 'the Little Bridge,' the other *Boiuk-Tchekmedge*, or 'the Great Bridge.' These lakes are respectively one and two leagues in diameter, and have unquestionably been gulfs of the Propontis.

The Thracian Bosphorus.] The ancient poets feign that the Bosphorus, which in Greek signifies, 'the passage of the bull or cow,' was so called from the metamorphosis of the daughter of Inachus who perished in this Strait. It has also been suggested that when the ancient inhabitants passed over the Strait, they may have used rafts drawn by oxen, and that this custom may have given rise to the name. The Turks call it *Boghaz-ichy*, or 'the middle of the throat,' and *Istambol Boghazy*, or 'the throat of Constantinople.' Its most significant name, however, is that given it by Euripides, who calls it 'the key of the Pontus.' Herodotus calculates its length at about 150 stadia or 15 geographical miles; the Turks estimate it at 18 of their miles, or somewhat more than 16 geographical miles; the real length from the centre of Constantinople to Karak is about 20 miles. The breadth varies from half-a-mile to 2 miles. The average depth is about 18 fathoms. The most remarkable feature in the Bosphorus is that of its currents. The principal one is from the Black Sea to the sea of Marmora; another runs directly contrary; and a third motion of the water is found at some depth below the surface, where they take a course directly opposite to that which prevails towards the surface, that is, runs from the sea of Marmora towards the Black Sea. The coast on both sides of the Bosphorus, from Constantinople to the Euxine, is greatly diversified,—sometimes exhibiting rugged and precipitous mountains, sometimes smiling gardens and villas.

The Euxine, or Black Sea.] This large inland sea, the *Pontus Euxinus* of the ancients, washes the shores of Romelia, Bulgaria, and Anatolia. It is entered from the sea of Marmora by the Thracian Bosphorus, and is connected with the sea of Azof by the Cimmerian Bosphorus. According to Arrowsmith's maps constructed on the latest authorities, it lies between 41° and 46° 30′ N. lat., and 28° and 41° 30′ E. long. This will give for its breadth from Cape Baba in Anatolia to Odessa about 380 miles; and for its length from the coast of Romelia to the mouth of the Phasis 720 miles. It derives its modern name, either from the dense fogs which frequently cover it, or from its dangerous navigation in consequence of these fogs. The coast is steep, and formed of layers of rock intermixed with strata of clay or gravel, and covered at the top by a good black mould. From the Bosphorus to Kara-Kerman within a few miles of the southernmost branch of the Danube, the coast is lined by the ridge of the Balkan, which is here covered with timber. No sand is found anywhere but at the mouths of the rivers. Tournefort, Buffon, Pallas, and Clarke hold the opinion of the ancients that this sea was anciently much more extensive, and did not communicate with the Mediterranean; and that its diminution

was effected by the bursting of the Thracian Bosphorus at the period of the deluge mentioned by Diodorus Siculus, when the waters which once covered the great oriental plains of Tartary, rushed towards the Mediterranean devastating the countries which lay between. Nine great and about 30 small rivers discharge themselves into the Euxine, which has yet but one known outlet. The quantity of water transmitted through the Bosphorus is little more than that which is discharged into the Black Sea by any one of the four mouths of the Danube, yet the Euxine does not increase in depth or extent; there must therefore exist some subterranean outlet for the waters, or the evaporation must be excessive. The Euxine possesses the advantages of being quite free from rocks, and of affording several harbours and roadsteds on all its coasts; yet every year witnesses frequent shipwrecks here occasioned by the ignorance and indolence of Turkish mariners, which greatly increase the expense of freight. It is partly for this reason that the Turks prefer small craft to large ships for coasting this sea, loading them indifferently with all goods which offer. If the Propontis and the Euxine were in the hands of an enlightened people, Constantinople might become the emporium both of Europe and Asia.

The Ionian Sea.] The *Ionium Mare*, or Ionian sea, forms a considerable part of the Mediterranean, extending between the western coasts of Turkey and the eastern coasts of Italy; or between the shores of Albania and the Greek provinces of Livadia and the Morea, and the S.E. coasts of the kingdom of Naples and the eastern coasts of Sicily. On the N. it communicates with the Adriatic by the Straits of Otranto, and on the W. it is united to the Tyrrhenian sea by the Straits of Messina. Cape Passero forming the S.E. extremity of Sicily, and the isle of Cerigotto, fix its southern limits and also its widest part. It is here about 165 leagues in breadth; but between Cape Tornese in the Morea, and Cape Spontivento in Naples, its breadth does not exceed 56 leagues. Its principal gulfs are: that of Lepanto betwixt the Morea and Lavadia,—those of Arcadia, Coron, and Kolskythia on the coasts of the Morea,—the gulf of Arta at the southern extremity of Albania,—the gulf of Tarentum,—and the gulf of Squillace. The only islands of importance in this sea are found along its eastern shores.

The Adriatic Sea.] This sea washes the coasts of Albania where it forms the gulf of Avlona.

Rivers.—The Danube.] The basin of this majestic stream includes more than a third part of Turkey in Europe. We have already described the course of this river in our introduction to Germany. It receives the Aluta or Alt in Wallachia, the Dumbovitza, the Jalonitza, the Sereth, the Pruth, the Save with its tributaries, and the Morava.

The Maritza.] The basin of the ancient *Hæmus* now the Maritza, occupies the greater part of Romelia. It rises in the Mount Rulla belonging to the Balkan-chain, and runs S.W. to Edrene, where it turns S. and falls into the gulf of Enos. It principal tributaries are the Stanimak, the Usundscha, the Arda, the Raska, the Tundscha, and the Erkene.

The Drin.] The White Drin and the Black Drin uniting their waters in the sandshak of Scutari, form the Drin, Drilo, or *Drinus*. The former branch rises in Mount Bora to the N.W. of Fotchia, and runs southward towards the Black Drin which descends from Mount Spiridion in the sandshak of Ochrida. The united streams flow westwards through the sandshak of Scutari, and after making a sudden bend towards the S.,

empty themselves into the gulf of Drin or Drino. The Drin is navigable for large rafts for upwards of 30 miles; and in this place, it flows through magnificent forests whose timber would only have to slide into the bed of the river. On this account the town of Alessio would form an excellent depot for ship-timber, brought down from the mountains of Upper Albania, and which is, at the same time, the best in quality as well as most abundant.—South of the Drino is the *Apsus*, now Kabroni. This stream rises in the apex of the angle formed by the Cambunian range, now Imolika, with Mount Pindus, here called Mount Gromos. It runs N.W. to the city of Arnaut Beligrad or Berat, and after passing by that city, runs almost due W. into the Adriatic.

Grecian Streams.] From the physical conformation of its surface, the rivers of Greece are necessarily small. Those of the largest size are in the N., as the *Strymon*, which runs 70 miles of a meridional course, and falls into the gulf of Contessa.—The *Axius*, or modern Vardar, may be considered as the largest river in all Greece. From our ignorance of the interior of Macedonia, it is impossible to fix its source, or delineate the particulars of its course, with anything approaching to accuracy. Its general course is from N.W. to S.E. It rises at the foot of the Scardian mountains, which separate Macedonia from Bulgaria, beyond the city of Scupi, the ancient *Uscopia*. The best information Cripps could procure respecting its springhead was the following: "When the plain of the Vardar is scorched up in summer, the shepherds drive their flocks and herds into the country between Bosnia and Carradar, and to the high mountains beyond Carradar, eight days' journey from Salonica. Those shepherds relate, that in a swamp, which trembles when a man walks upon it, there is a spring which rises from the earth so as to form a river upon the spot eleven yards wide, from bank to bank. Soon afterwards it becomes augmented by seven other tributary streams, (called *rivers* by the shepherds,) but the real source of the Vardar, they say, is this powerful fountain." Where Clarke crossed it, it was more than a quarter of a mile broad, and very rapid.—To the south of the Vardar, the combined streams of the Lydias and Erigone enter the sea. The former of these is now called Kutchuk Karasu, or 'the Black River;' and the latter, the Vistriza, having its source in the eastern slope of the Pindus, being separated from those of the Drino by an intervening ridge.—South of these is the *Haliacmon*, now called the Indge Karasu.—Farther south is the famed *Peneus*, the boundary of Thessaly and Macedonia. The description of this river belongs to our 12th chapter.—South of the Apsus, and north of Avlona or Valona, the *Aous*, now called the Viosa and Vojutza, enters the sea. This is the largest and longest river on the coast of Albania. It rises on a receding angle of Mount Pindus, near the sources of the Haliacmon, the Peneus, the Aracthus, and the Achelous, and runs W. through the mountainous district of Zagora, or Stympha, as far as the ridge Tzumerka, the ancient *Lacmus*, receiving streams from the opposite ranges of the Zagora and the Tagostaper. It then runs N. along the eastern base of the Mertzika range, as far as the stupendous defile of Klissoura, a place full of majesty and boldness—the ancient *Stenă Pelagonia*. Having passed this narrow defile, it forms a junction with the river of Argyro Castro, the ancient *Celydnus*, just above Tepelina, the birth-place of the late celebrated Ali Pasha. At this junction, the combined stream is 250 yards wide, and has a rapid and violent course, with a deep current. Below Tepelina, it is joined by the Bentza, which rises among the high mountains to the west, flowing through

a very profound valley, contracted by cliffs of immense height, where the stratification of the limestone composing them is beautifully displayed. Pursuing its course N.W. to Gradista, the ancient *Amantia*, the river leaves the mountains a little beyond, and enters the plains, and continues its course in the same direction to *Apollonia*, now Pollina, a city celebrated in the wars of Cæsar and Pompey, a few miles beyond which it enters the sea. The vale of the *Celydnus*, now called the river of Deropuli, is very extensive and populous. The Celydnus has a very singular bending course. The Kalama, the ancient *Thyamis*, and the river of Suli, supposed to be the ancient *Acheron* by Holland, are not of great note. The river of *Arta* is a large stream, entering the gulf of that name. The great body of the Grecian streams, are mere brooks, and in summer are nearly dry.

Climate.] The European part of the Turkish empire enjoys a climate superior to that of almost every other European region. The seasons succeed each other with the greatest regularity; and the atmosphere is extremely salubrious and friendly to the human constitution. In several of the large cities, indeed, the plague is a frequent visitant; but this dreadful distemper—if it originate in the nature of the corrupted atmosphere in large cities—owes its propagation and its augmented virulence to the notions of the Turks, who imagine that every precaution to avoid it is needless, and who consequently expose themselves without scruple to infection. The climate of Greece compared with that of Spain and Italy in the corresponding latitudes, is distinguished chiefly by having the peculiarities of an inland region in a higher degree, that is, the extremes of summer and winter are more severe. The annual average quantity of rain in Attica,—which has a drier atmosphere and more salubrious uniform temperature than the rest of Greece,—is about 21 or 22 inches, and the maximum of heat in each of the four years ending with 1807, was 104°, 99°, 93°, 94°. That of cold was from 28° to 32° of Fahrenheit. The mean, deduced from all these extremes, is 63° 5′. This very nearly harmonizes with the temperature of a spring in the Isthmus of Corinth, observed by Dr Clarke, and with the mean annual temperature given in Leslie's Table, which is 64° 4′. At the southern extremity, the annual temperature, according to the same authority, is 65° 3′, and at the northern, 60°. But difference of temperature is more influenced by local diversities than by the mere circumstance of latitude. In Attica, which in some places has an insular climate, from its constant exposure to the sea-breezes, winter commences in the beginning of January. About the middle of that month snow falls, but seldom lies for more than a few days, though it rests for a month on the summits of the mountains. February is ushered in by gentle rains, soon after which is the commencement of spring; and the corn, which in March attains a considerable height, is cut in May. In the beginning of March the vines and olives bud, and the almonds blossom. In the great interior valleys and plains, begirt with mountains and deprived of the softening sea-breezes, the winters are much colder; and the summers, allowing for the difference of height, are warmer. At Tripolizza in Arcadia, the snow was found by Dr Holland 18 inches deep in January, and it sometimes lies on the ground six weeks. In the winter preceding Dr Clarke's visit to Platea in Bœotia, the peasants at the foot of Mount Cithæron were confined to their houses for several weeks by the snow, and the ground was covered with it when he was there on the 8th of December. This remarkably confirms the statement of Thucydides respecting the Platæans, that a great quantity of snow fell during the night

that they fled to Athens and left their city, taking the road towards Thebes, in order to deceive their enemies. At Joannina, situated in an upland plain 1200 feet above the level of the sea, the snow lies considerably deep during winter, and falls sometimes as late as April. The lake on the shore of which it lies was completely frozen in 1813, and so firmly, that it was everywhere crossed on the ice. The summits of the central ridge of Pindus, and most of the Albanian mountains, are covered with snow from the beginning of November to the end of March. These various facts show that the winter in Albania, though shorter than in England, is as severe. The summer, however, is vastly hotter, the maximum of its temperature at Athens being from 14 to 18 degrees higher than at London, while Bœotia and Thessaly are probably still hotter than Attica. Though destitute of accurate data to establish a comparison between the climate of Greece and those of Spain and Italy, yet the fact of cotton being successfully cultivated in Macedonia, and on a large scale as far north as the latitudes of Rome and Valladolid—where it does not succeed in the last two countries—proves the summer-temperature of Greece to be higher than in either of these countries. The coldest weather in all Greece is accompanied with a N.E. wind. The N. and N.W. winds are distinguished by their serenity and dryness. The Zephyr, or W. wind, is famed for its balmy softness. The S.E., the S., and S.W. breezes are all humid, and the E. wind still retains the character of a morning breeze, as described by Aristotle. The sirocco, or hot wind is felt in Greece. It blows from the S.E., and produces its usual effects on the human frame—a sense of oppression, a dull head-ache, with lassitude and oppression in the limbs. Earthquakes are very frequent in Greece.

Soil and Productions.] If the climate of Turkey be agreeable, the soil is for the most part no less remarkable for its fertility,—producing spontaneously many of the most valuable fruits, and capable of being brought to produce crops sufficient for the sustenance of a much greater number of inhabitants than it at present supports. Agriculture however is little known, and less practised; for such is the nature of the government, that property is extremely insecure, and industry finds a thousand obstacles thrown in her way. The only roads are beaten pathways, made by one horseman and followed by another, and every man may make one for himself if he pleases. The only carriages are wooden planks laid upon rough wheels, called *arubas*, drawn with cords by buffaloes which are seldom used except for burden. When a little labour has been bestowed on the soil, the abundance of the produce sufficiently evinces that a more careful culture would be well-repaid. In the northern provinces the pasture is luxuriant, and wheat might be raised in almost any quantity. In the southern parts rice is common. Barley and a kind of grain called *dura* are likewise cultivated. Grapes of an excellent quality are produced, with abundance of dates and olives. Opium is one of the most important productions of Turkey. It is the juice of the black poppy, a plant grown in Carissa, Ujack, and Jallah, a distance of about ten days' journey from Smyrna. It is sown in November and December; and in June the plant forms a ball, which contains the seed. In these balls incisions are made, from which oozes out a milky substance, which is collected gradually, and formed either into cakes about the size of a biscuit, or balls as large as a four-pound shot, when it is sent to Smyrna in baskets of from eighty-five to ninety checques each, about the end of July. A good crop will yield 1,500 baskets, and an ordinary one from 1,000 to 1,200; of which quantity it is known with certainty

that not more than 200 are used in the Turkish empire, so that the practice of chewing opium, though still considered general here, is less universal among the people than would be imagined. The best qualities are exported by the English and Americans for their separate speculations to China, and various parts of the East Indies. In Greece, the cultivation of corn-land is generally rude and slovenly. The common crops are wheat, barley, maize, and rye, a very small quantity of oats, rice in marshy spots, millet, pease, beans, tares, sesamum, anise, cotton, and tobacco. Turnips are confined to gardens, and potatoes are wholly unknown. Corn sown in November is cut in May. It is sometimes, however, sown as late as April, and reaped in two months. After a crop of barley, cotton is sometimes sown and reaped the same season. The soil of Attica is too light for wheat, and hence barley, as in ancient times, is still the prevailing crop. It does not appear, however, that the Athenians attended much to the agriculture of their own country. "Every man," says Xenophon, "may be a farmer, no art or skill is requisite." "A very good proof," says Hume, "that agriculture was not much understood." The most fertile plains are those of Thessaly, Bœotia, Sicyon, Argos, Messenia, Arcadia, and Macedonia. According to Beaujour, the late French consul at Salonica, the soil of Macedonia is superior even to that of Sicily. An arpent, or an English acre and a fourth, usually produces from 25 to 30 cwt of wheat. In the Arcadian plains, wheat of several kinds yields 12 for 1; in those of Argos 10 to 1; in Eleusis, the primitive seat of agriculture, and in Thessaly, 12 to 1. According to Mr Hawkins, good soils in favourable seasons produce 10 or 12 to 1, and the best soils in very favourable seasons, from 15 to 18 for 1. These calculations, if well-founded, prove a very high degree of fertility. In England the average return from the seed, notwithstanding its highly improved agriculture, is believed not to exceed 9 for 1. The very best soils there yield from 6 to 7 quarters of wheat per acre, or from 24 to 28 cwt; but from ordinary soils, the average produce per acre is only about 20 bushels, or 10 cwt.

Animals.] The Turkish dominions are not deficient in those kinds of cattle and beasts of burden which are common in other parts of Europe. The horses are improved by the Arabian breed: and are consequently elegant of form, spirited, and active. Mules and asses are much used; and the breed of both is more perfect than any where else in Europe. Cattle are not scarce; but the beef is said to be inferior to that of countries farther to the west. Sheep are found of various kinds, and the mutton is said to be excellent. The camel is common in the southern provinces. The modern breed of sheep in Greece have much declined from the ancient in beauty and value. The flesh is but indifferent, the wool coarse, and the weight of the animal is only from 30 to 50 pounds. The flocks of Arcadia and Livadia, those especially which feed upon Parnassus, are judged superior to the rest. A black woolled breed is very common. In Greece as in Spain, the flocks migrate from the inland mountains to the low valleys near the sea, at the approach of winter. Attended by the owners with their servants they come down in October in vast numbers to the low country, where they enjoy the right of pasture, and return to the hills in April. Goats are numerous, and are shorn along with the sheep, and their hair is made into sacks, bags, and carpets. The flocks are guarded from wolves by large and very strong dogs, supposed to be the offspring of the ancient Molossian breed. The Spartan dogs are famed for their swiftness, and the Molossian for strength and fierceness.

Dr Holland found a great deal of caution necessary in passing flocks of sheep, from the fierceness of the large dogs attending them, and in approaching at night any cottage where these animals were kept. Attica, with a surface of only 885 square miles English, or less than a 60th part of all Greece, is said to have possessed 3,000 oxen, 100,000 goats, and 60,000 sheep, previous to the late devastating war, and yet it is by no means so pastoral a country as Albania, Phocis, or Arcadia. In the Morea, the oxen are low in stature, with long white hair, and weigh from 300 to 400 lbs. The cows, which are chiefly kept for breeding, give but little milk, and are exposed to jackals which tear away the teats, and serpents which are said to suck the milk. A very fine breed of oxen is found in Chaonia, in the districts watered by the Viosa. These too are probably descended from the ancient breed celebrated by Aristotle, Ælian, and Pliny, for their strength and beauty. Buffaloes are used throughout the Morea in husbandry, and when unfit for labour, are killed and eaten. They are handsome animals, with fine skins. European Turkey has few wild animals. The jackal is said to be the most common. The species of birds and fishes are numerous; but so little is known of the natural history of these provinces, that little can be said concerning them. The Bosphorous swarms with myriads of the finny tribe, the most ordinary of which are the *scombri*, a species of mackerel, which are dried, without salt, by the Greeks; *palamedes* and *stavidria*, two species of dolphins; and anchovies and *nilufer*, which latter are caught by torch-light, on their migration from the Black into the White Sea, during the autumn. The Bosphorus is, at times, enlivened by the gambols of shoals of dolphins, whose effigies are extant on the ancient Byzantine coins.

Minerals.] We are informed by ancient writers, that several parts of that territory which is now under the dominion of the Turks, formerly had mines of gold and silver; and these metals might, perhaps, still be discovered, were the industry of the Turks equal to the search, but at present no mines of those metals are known. The only metals now wrought appear to be copper and lead. Little information has yet been obtained of the mineral wealth of Greece, but from its geological structure, it may be inferred that, like Italy, it is rather poor in metals. It is chiefly on the eastern side, where the older rocks protrude through the superincumbent limestone, that metalliferous veins have been found. The silver mines of Laurium in Attica, which were so extensive as to employ 10,000 slaves, and supported at one period the navy of Athens, are now completely abandoned. Copper was also anciently found in Attica. Ores of gold, silver, iron, lead, and alum, were wrought in Eubœa, Melos, Naxos, Siphnus, and others of the Cyclades. Marbles of many varieties are abundant in Greece. Caryophilus—who published a very learned treatise on ancient marbles at Utrecht in 1743—states that the Greeks used 41 varieties of marbles. Of these the Pentelican was perfectly white and granular. That of Hymettus was much inferior, and of a bluish colour inclining to a blackish-grey. It was, however, so much esteemed in the days of Xenophon, that temples, altars, shrines, and statues were made of it throughout Greece, but especially at Athens. Another variety was from Mount Phellius in Attica. The Tænarian, black and green; the Corinthian, variegated, but chiefly yellow; the Atracian, in the vicinity of Tempe, and on the slope of Ossa, green and white; the Parian, of the purest whiteness; the Thasian, like Parian; the Carystian, green, variegated with spots; the Melian, yellow; the Chian, variegated; the Tyrian, white, from Mount

Lebanon; the Atracian marble is the Verde Antico of the Italian lapidaries. It may be proper to remark, that the city of Atrakia at the entrance of the gorge of Tempe, was on the site of the modern Ampelakia, where that species of marble is still found, and that, consequently, Ampelakia is not the ancient *Amphilochia*, as Dr Holland thought, deceived by the similarity of the two names: Amphilochia being a city, or rather district, in Acarnania, and not in Thessaly. The marbles of Paros and Pentelicus are highly crystalline, and were employed in the finest works of sculpture and architecture. The marble of Naxos only differs from that of Thasos and Paros in exhibiting a more advanced state of crystallization, and the marble of Carrara in Italy differs from Parian in being milky and less crystalline.

CHAP. III.—POPULATION—MANNERS AND CUSTOMS—RELIGION—LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

Population.] It is extremely difficult to estimate even approximatively the population of such a country as Turkey, whose moral and political institutions differ so widely from our own, where no census has been taken in recent times, no registers of deaths and births kept, and the number of houses is unknown. Two general censuses of the whole empire were indeed taken by order of the government in the 16th and the beginning of the 17th century, but their results are not now known; and though they were, they would not greatly assist us in estimating the probable amount of the existing population. In the *Staatshandbuche* for 1816, the population of the whole Ottoman empire was calculated at 24,072,000 souls. Liechtenstern estimated it in his Statistical Tables of 1819 at 24,880,000, and Graberg the same year at 24,000,000. Supposing the houses to be as thinly scattered as in the less populous parts of Spain, Malte Brun says the population of the empire may amount to between 25 and 30 millions. Hassel, in 1816, calculated it at 24,000,000; and Baron Humboldt at 25,330,000. But in the elements of these calculations we find very great discrepancies; one geographer, for example, assigns 6,000,000 to Asia Minor, another estimates the population of that part of the Turkish empire at 12,000,000; equally wide are the discrepancies in the different calculations of the population of Egypt. Again, with regard to the European portions of the Turkish empire, the Statistical Manual for 1816 reckons it, inclusive of Greece, at 9,482,000; Crome, in his survey of the political strength of Europe, at only 6,700,000; and Lindner at 5,390,000. It is certain that the increase of population in the fine and fertile countries composing European Turkey is greatly checked by a fanatical religion, and still more by the horrible despotism of a semi-barbarous government; nevertheless, Nature showers her blessings with such a prodigal hand here, that in despite of these mighty obstacles, several provinces are very populous, and we are inclined to regard Hassel's approximation of 11,600,000 —though considerably above Balbi's estimate in 1826—as probably pretty near the truth. This population Hassel distributes in the following manner:

The whole of Ancient Greece, ...	3,000,000
The Islands, Kirid, and Galipoli, but exclusive of the small Asiatic islands, ...	600,000
Bosnia, ...	1,000,000
Wallachia and Moldavia, ...	1,500,000

Ancient Servia,	1,800,000
Ancient Thracia, with the two capitals,	2,200,000
Ancient Bulgaria,	1,500,000
Total,	11,600,000

The country might certainly maintain a population four times more numerous without being overstocked; and indeed may have done so in the brilliant epoch of the Byzantine empire. M. Jomard—who in his *Statistique de la Turquie*, estimates the whole population of European Turkey at 11,240,000 souls—remarks that the mean number of inhabitants of this empire is but at the rate of 294 individuals per square league, whilst the number in France is 1,200, in England 1,600, and in the Netherlands and Lombardy 2,000. In order to make a *levy en masse* of 30,000 or 40,000 men, the whole population fit to bear arms of a country much larger than Sicily or Belgium would be required in this empire.

Respecting the population of Ancient Greece, it is impossible to form any satisfactory conclusion on the discordant statements collected by a Wallace or a Hume. No sufficient data exist, if ever such were given by the ancients. Numerous errors have crept into the numerical expressions in the text of ancient authors, and the distinctions of citizens, slaves, and strangers, have increased the difficulty. Supposing the text in Athenæus to be genuine, the population of Attica amounted to 524,000. There were 21,000 citizens, and 10,000 strangers. Allowing to each of these a wife and two children, we have the number of free persons 124,000, and the slaves 400,000, or 524,000 for the aggregate population: which, upon a superficies of 885 square miles, would give 593 persons to a square mile. It must be remarked, however, that this was far more than the country of Attica itself, could possibly support; and that the Athenians were in the habit of constantly importing immense supplies of grain from Sicily, Egypt, and the Euxine, or Black Sea. This is, of course, no criterion by which to estimate the population of Ancient Greece. Olives were, indeed, an article of daily food, but could never be the staple article of subsistence, nor support such a number. Hume's estimate is only 284,000 souls. Another mode of calculation may be adopted. The Spartans were the only power in Greece who regularly used their Helots or slaves in their armies, and whose force may be therefore adopted as a criterion of their whole population. They sent off, Lacedæmonians and Helots together, 50,000 men to fight the Persians at Platæa. The men were collected and sent off in a day or two, and as the Messenians were soon after in a state of revolt, we may conclude that none of that nation were in the army. If this army be supposed to contain one-half of the males fit for war, or one-eighth of the whole population, that of Laconia would be 400,000, and that of Peloponnesus, on the same ratio, would be 2,000,000. When Paulus Æmilius conquered Macedonia, 150,000 men in Epirus were sold for slaves. If we estimate these at one-fourth of the whole population, as they were probably all those who were of military age, the whole population of ancient Epirus, the most barren and mountainous district in Greece, would be 600,000. Estimating the population of ancient Greece north of the isthmus of Corinth at three-fifths of the density of Peloponnesus, it would amount to 8,500,000. This is, however, mere conjecture, and almost tantamount to a confession of total ignorance. Respecting the modern population, we are nearly in equal ignorance. This only we can be said to know, that the numbers do not amount to one-half the ancient

population. The estimate of Beaujour, who computes the modern population at 1,920,000 for Macedonia, Thessaly, Greece Proper, Epirus, and the Morea, is by far too small, though his estimate has till of late been generally followed. His numbers are as follows: Macedonia, 700,000; Thessaly, 300,000; Epirus, 400,000; Ætolia, Phocis, and Bœotia, 200,000; Attica, 20,000; Peloponnesus, 300,000. The population of the Morea suffered dreadfully in 1770, when the Russians incited the Moreots to revolt, by landing a small force. No less than 300,000 are said to have perished by the hands of the Albanians, who, to the number of 30,000, under the pasha of Bosnia, entered the peninsula, put every thing to fire and sword, and drove the Russians to their ships. On this account Beaujour estimates the population at the above reduced number. But it increased considerably afterwards; and accordingly, Pouqueville, the late French consul at Joannina, estimated it at 420,000, including 15,000 Turks, and 4000 Jews, but the late revolutionary war must have again greatly reduced it. Beaujour, also, does not appear to have included in Epirus the tract watered by the Bielo Drino and the Mauro Drino, or even Northern Albania or Illyria; and the researches of Hobhouse and Holland have shown that the parts of this country which he did include, are more populous than he imagined. The pasha of Joannina's territories, bounded by the limits Dr Holland has assigned, contained 26,000 square miles. The population of this territory he estimated at 2,000,000, Pouqueville states it at 1,500,000. It is impossible to decide which of the two estimates comes nearest the truth, unfurnished as we are with documents. If we add to the 2,000,000 of Dr Holland's estimate 420,000 for the Morea, 100,000 for Attica, Bœotia, and Eubœa, 600,000 for Macedonia exclusive of the Joannina pashalik, 200,000 for the pashalik of Scutari, or Northern Albania, and 80,000 for the Cyclades, we shall have 3,400,000 for the entire population of Greece. This population is very unequally divided. In the southern parts of Macedonia, in the eastern parts of Thessaly, and in the central and southern parts of Albania, it appears to be densest. Acarnania is almost a desert. Œtolia is thinly peopled. Attica, including Athens, has not more than 25 or 30 persons to the square mile. The plains of Argos, and the mountainous region of the Maina, are the most populous parts of the Morea.

Turks.] The population of European Turkey is of very mixed descent. The Turks properly so called—although they form but a very small proportion of the population,—having the dominion of the country, take the precedency of all the other tribes. They are the descendants of a people who still inhabit the shores of the Caspian, and the steppes of Upper Asia. They are a fine-looking race of men, seldom below the middle size, with lofty foreheads, dark eyes, finely cut features, and limbs cast in the Grecian mould. The full form of their limbs may perhaps in some measure be attributed to their loose mode of clothing themselves, which leaves the body free from those ligatures so common among their western neighbours; but the personal elegance of the Turk is chiefly owing to the mixture of different blood in his constitution. Arab, Grecian, and Persian blood all flow in the veins of an Ottoman, and conspire to make him the handsomest of human beings. Of the women, the countenances are more striking than the form or the gait. Both the latter are probably hurt by their confined mode of life which deprives them of that kind of exercise which alone can bring the human shape to perfection, and by their manner of sitting which is said almost invariably to induce a habit of stooping.

The Turks still retain the same character which the histories of the 15th century attribute to them. They are indolent in time of peace, but when war rouses them they become infuriated. They rob and oppress the rayas or infidels, but are friendly and obliging towards strangers; they devastate villages, but they found and endow hospitals; they keep their oaths, but trample on every principle of public law; they are susceptible of feelings of honour, but compassion is a stranger to their breasts; they dethrone and strangle their sultans, but are great advocates for monarchy. Although unrefined and sensual in their ideas of pleasure, they are moderate in its enjoyments; and starting from the lap of luxuriousness, they submit to the severest privations without grumbling. They are good relatives and husbands, and polygamy is far from being in general use among them. A harem is, to most of them, only an object of luxury and ostentation. Inhuman in their vindictiveness, they frequently carry their exalted friendship to a point of heroism. Their courage manifests itself sometimes in a chivalrous heroism, and on other occasions in a stoical indifference. Here they are seen courageously precipitating themselves on the enemy's ranks, without regard to numbers; and there they suffer themselves to be strangled with a pipe in their mouth. They change exile for a palace with the utmost *sang froid;* and consider themselves on every occasion as the slaves or agents of unalterable and immutable fate. [3]

[3] Some European travellers have indulged a license in describing the Turkish character, certainly beyond the limits of candid or judicious observation. The Turks, on the other hand, it must be confessed, too often demean themselves towards all Europeans,—whom they generally term *Franks*—in a manner very repugnant to those ideas of urbanity and decorum which prevail in civilized or polished nations. Much of this is certainly attributable to the genius of their religion, and to that spirit of intolerance which their prophet thought proper to inculcate as the perfection of Mussulman virtue. Candour, however, must force us to admit that the aversion for infidels generally displayed throughout Turkey has by no means been unprovoked by the conduct of our ancestors, as well as by the impudence of individuals, and the conduct of modern governments. Mahomet undoubtedly commenced his career with an avowal and peremptory inculcation of the principles of intolerance. Still, however, we may pause before we completely assign to religious causes alone the dislike which all classes of Mahomedans have continued to evince towards Europeans through the lapse of so many centuries. The truth seems to be, that persecution and violence were alike the characteristics of the Catholic church and the Mahommedan mosque, during the dark and barbarous period at which the religion of the latter was established. Mahomet himself appears to have been inclined at first rather to conciliate than exasperate the Christians and Jews of Asia. He admits, to a certain degree, the divine mission of both their great prophets; although he places his own alleged commission as pre-eminently superior to both. Whether we ought to attribute this to a policy which was merely desirous to accumulate strength and gain time before proceeding to extremities, or whether he was really willing at first to compromise with both of those sects, it is difficult to guess and impossible now to determine. The former opinion seems to be most consistent with the subsequent achievements of this devastating apostle. He was proclaimed king at Medina in the year 627, and died in 632; and it was not until the 29th of May, 1453, that Constantinople, the capital then of the Greek empire, was taken by storm. But, although no part of Europe, the peninsula of Spain excepted, had been governed by Mussulmen previous to this period, yet contests between the Europeans and Asiatics, led on by chiefs alike furious and alike intolerant and rapacious on each side, had frequently occurred on the soil of Asia itself. These were the famous crusades, or, as the Romish clergy were pleased to designate them, the holy wars. Now the Europeans, in these sanguinary contests, were undoubtedly the aggressors; for at this period the Greek empire, though threatened and even invaded by the Mahommedans—then termed *Saracens*—was still in existence, and its European provinces entirely untouched by those warlike Asiatics. Indeed no plea of actual aggression was thought necessary by the princes of this formidable confederacy, which embraced the whole centre and west of Europe. The only pretence was the recovery of Palestine, or the Holy Land, and especially the holy city of Jerusalem and the sepulchre of Jesus Christ, from the power of the Mahommedan infidels. The first of these crusades commenced in 1065; but the scene of contest was too remote,—the means of transportation in these ages too difficult,—and the treasures of the Christian princes too slenderly replenished,—to admit of persevering in so exhausting and fruitless a project. The Christian powers were

The dress of the Turks is so well-known, as almost to require no particular description. The head is covered with a turban, composed of a kind of cap surrounded by many folds of cloth. Of the turban, the sizes and forms are extremely numerous: each size and form indicating something in the rank or condition of the wearer. This part of dress is never laid aside but for the purpose of going to sleep. The Turkish garments, unlike those of the western European nations, are loose and flowing. The lower parts of the body are covered with wide drawers, or rather trowsers. The shirt has wide sleeves without wristbands; over this is worn a kind of wide vest bound with a sash; and, above all, a long flowing gown. The head is shaven except a small lock upon the crown: but the beard is worn long, and frequently artificially dyed. On the feet, instead of shoes, are worn slippers, which when they enter a house are always left at the door. Though this be the most common dress among the Turks, dresses entirely different are by no means unfrequent. Different professions, particularly the military and learned classes, are distinguished by peculiar habits; and different nations are known by wearing clothes, if not of a particular form, at least of a particular colour. Sumptuary laws are in force, regulating the colour of the clothes, the colour of the slippers or boots, and the size and colour of the turban. To infringe these laws is extremely dangerous for a Turk, and is almost certain destruction to a Christian, although the present sultan has succeeded in reducing the military costume to something approaching the European garb. The female dress, like that of the men, consists of long loose flowing robes, and differs not materially from it in form. The head, instead of a turban, is covered with a stiff kind of cap; but, with regard to this part of the body less uniformity prevails among the women than among the men. When a female appears abroad, the veil is indispensable, and so disguises her, that she cannot from her appearance be known even to her most intimate friends. A lady cannot, even in the presence of her husband or another female, appear unveiled before a physician, or have her pulse felt, except through a muslin sleeve; though, in cases of great danger, the law relaxes its severity, and allows a lady to unveil to show her eyes or her tongue.

Manners and Customs.] A Turk generally takes more pleasure in decorating his horse than himself; and displays his wealth in the richness of his mountings. Grandeur in Turkey cannot be displayed without a great number of servants; since no domestic will undertake more than one simple office, and on no account can be induced to extend his exertions

therefore compelled to abandon the attempt; and finally, after unexampled havoc and bloodshed, to leave matters—desolation alone excepted—exactly as they had found them. The details of these sanguinary events will be better reserved for another place; they are only slightly touched upon here as causes which contributed much to inflame, if they did not actually create, those violent animosities which have so long marked the intercourse of Christians and Mahommedans. Nor is it at all wonderful that violent national prejudices should exist among a people so ignorant and so bigotted as the Mahommedans. A vulgar Englishman and Frenchman are always ready to indulge themselves in vulgar abuse of each other's habits, and country. This too has been occasioned by the frequent wars in which these countries have been involved, and the emulation which subsists between them. But is the case much different amongst those united under a common government? Is not the accent of a Scotchman, or the bulls of an Irishman, the perpetual object of an uneducated Englishman's mirth; whilst his grammatical inaccuracies, misapplications of the letters *h*, *v*, and *w*, and other deviations from correct pronunciation, equally excite the risibility and sarcasm of his provincial neighbours and fellow-subjects? Civilization must have made high progress, indeed, where strangers may not occasionally be exposed to both ridicule and insult. Nor do all our travellers agree in stigmatising the Turks; many of them in contrast to these pictures, present us with even exalted pictures of honour, integrity, and fidelity amongst these people.

to a department for which he was not particularly hired. No domestic, says Dallaway, performs more than one office; this serves the coffee, and that hands the napkin, but no emergency can command any other service. The wages of these servants are not high. The greatest expense in keeping them seems to be the furnishing them with clothes sufficiently grand. Cleanliness is enforced upon the Turks by their religion, which declares frequent ablutions to be absolutely necessary. It is somewhat singular, therefore, that some have attributed the prevalence of the plague in the large Turkish cities, to the uncleanliness of the Turkish mode of living. The truth is, that not only the Turks, but all other Mahommedans are, in their mode of life, much more cleanly than the generality of Christians. In eating, no people can be more moderate. Their food is simple; and is seldom taken to excess. Rice forms the principal article, and is dressed in various ways, sometimes with mutton and fowl, but oftener without either of them. The hands are washed before and after every meal; while, at the same time, a short form of prayer is repeated. Coffee is generally used, and is swallowed without either milk or sugar. In drinking, if they were strictly to adhere to their religion, the Turks would be much more abstemious than the Christians; but wine is now generally used except by the most superstitious. Many make no scruple of drinking it in public, and few refuse it in private.

The general abstemiousness of the Turks is nominally enforced by the Ramadhán, or yearly fast; but is rather destroyed than aided by the way in which that fast is observed. The Ramadhán continues a month, and revolves through every month of the year. During the whole period, the most perfect abstinence is enjoined from sunrise to sunset; to taste even cold water would be to transgress the sacred law. This injunction is said to be rigorously observed; but as the law which enjoins it, mentions the time of sunrising and sunsetting, as containing the period during which the fast is to be observed, the Turks very ingeniously suppose that no indulgence can be wrong that takes place between sunsetting and sunrising. After the day has been loitered away, therefore, in a state of complete inactivity, at sunset every Mahommedan abandons himself to gaiety and every species of indulgence. Among the wealthy, parties are formed for every evening; and the greater part of the night is spent in pleasures not the most temperate, till the returning morning brings along with it a new obligation to sobriety. The lower ranks have also their pastimes, and spend their nights, if not with equal elegance, at least with as much happiness, as their superiors. The Ramadhán is succeeded by a festival called *Beiram*, which is the season of universal jollity to all ranks. Every one dresses himself with all possible gaiety and splendour. The places of public resort are continually crowded; and the various ranks betake themselves to those amusements for which they have the greatest inclination. During this festival, and others of a similar kind, the modes of diversion are not less various than in other countries. It is difficult to say how so large a proportion of Turks, having no ostensible mode of living, no profession, and no apparent income, contrive not merely to subsist, but to support an external appearance of opulence, amid all this dissipation and indolence. Every avocation that demands intellect, Mr Madden observes, is followed by a Christian; every trade which requires any extraordinary energy of mind or body is usurped by a rayah. The Jews and the Armenians absorb no small share of the riches of the State as bankers and money-brokers. The Greeks and Copts act as secretaries and factors to

the merchants and grandees; only such trades as shoe-making, embroidering, pipe-boring, sword-polishing, and silk-weaving are in the hands of the Turks; and yet the latter spend a great part of their time sauntering from caffé to caffé, frequently support three or four wives, and seldom fail to sport a splendid suit of clothes at the Beiram.

Among the graver and more intelligent individuals, an amusement prevails of a very pleasing and often instructive kind. This consists in listening to story-tellers, who, with the most agreeable vivacity, and often with all the charms of wit and humour, repeat eastern tales, and make sarcastic remarks on the manners, and sometimes on the politics of the times. Their other amusements are said sometimes to be less dignified, and more consonant to that indolent disposition which has been attributed to the Turks. It is not uncommon to see aged men, of the gravest and most venerable aspect, swinging in a circular motion in seats suspended by long poles from an elevated wheel. This amusement has certainly the recommendation of innocence, but shows to what ridiculous shifts that man is sometimes reduced for amusement whose mind remains in an uncultivated state. Besides those amusements which are furnished to them by others, the Turks sometimes endeavour to amuse themselves by engaging in various games: their most favourite are draughts and chess. Games of hazard are forbidden; and, if they ever venture to engage in them, they are careful to avoid betting lest they should be led to altercation and quarrels. Nothing, to a Turk, appears more ridiculous than to walk, either for amusement or for health. Seated on a carpet in a cross-legged posture, or reclining under the shade of a tree, he passes whole days in smoking tobacco, sipping coffee, or listening to a musical instrument perpetually repeating some favourite tune. Hence Europeans have almost universally characterized the Turks as an indolent and an inactive race; and in some cases the Turk is really indolent; in others, however, his disposition seems to be completely altered. The Turk on horseback has no resemblance to the Turk reclining on his carpet; he there assumes a vigour, and displays a dexterity, which few Europeans would be capable of emulating; no horsemen surpass the Turks, and with all the indolence of which they are accused no people are more fond of the violent exercise of riding.

Smoking is a species of luxury in which the Turks almost universally indulge themselves; the chief exception being in the case of young women. "In his pipe," says Dallaway, "an opulent man is extremely sumptuous; the head must be of pale amber, the stick of jasmine wood, with the bark preserved, and the bowl of a delicate red clay, manufactured at Burgas, in Romelia, and highly ornamented. According to the dignity of the smoker is the length of his pipe, often six or seven feet, when it is carried by two of his servants, from place to place with much ceremony; and the bowl is supported by wheels, as an aid to supreme indolence. In the summer, for greater coolness, the stem of the pipe is covered with cotton or muslin, and moistened with water."

To procure the pleasures of inebriation without having recourse to forbidden liquors, the Turks sometimes make use of opium,—a vegetable substance, which, when used in a certain quantity, excites in the mind the most pleasing images. If the quantity be somewhat greater than the dose to which the person has been accustomed, it frequently brings on fits of the most frantic rage; and this drug, like all other inebriating substances, tends to undermine the health of him who uses it with too much freedom.

In all the large cities, many coffee-houses are constantly open where coffee and opium may at any time be procured. The use of this drug, however is said to have been formerly much more extensive than at present; it is even calculated by long residents in the country that throughout the Turks of all classes there are not above 2 in 100 who use this pernicious drug. Dr Walsh remarks the strange aptitude of a Turk to differ from a Frank, even in his most trifling habits. "The house next to the barber's shop," says he, "was in progress of building, and there was a man writing down some inventory. All the persons I saw engaged were working in a manner opposite to our usage. The barber pushed the razor from him—ours draws it to him; the carpenter, on the contrary, drew the saw to him, for all the teeth were set in—ours pushes it from him, for all the teeth are set out; the mason sat while he laid the stones—ours always stands; the scribe wrote on his hand, and from right to left—ours always writes on a desk or table, and from left to right; but the most ridiculous difference existed in the manner of building the house. We begin at the bottom and finish to the top; this house was a frame of wood which the Turks began at the top, and the upper rooms were finished and inhabited, while all below was like a lanthorn. However absurd these minutiæ may appear to you, they are traits of Turkish character which form with other things a striking peculiarity. It is now more than four centuries since they crossed the Hellespont, and transported themselves from Asia to Europe; during all that time they have been in constant contact with European habits and manners, and at times even penetrated as far as Vienna, and so occupied the very centre of Christendom. Yet, while all the people around them have been advancing in the march of improvement, in various ways, they have stood still and refused to move; and such is their repugnance to any assimilation, that almost all the men who have attempted to improve them, have fallen victims to their temerity, or the Turks themselves have perished in resistance; and, with very few exceptions the great body of them are at this day, the same puerile, prejudiced, illiterate, untractable, and stubborn race that left the mountains of Atai. And so indisposed are they to amalgamate with us in any way, that they still preserve a marked distinction in the greatest as well as in the minutest things—not only in science and literature, but in the movement of a saw and a razor."

Polygamy—Turkish Harems.] But the circumstance in which the Turks chiefly differ from other Europeans, is one which is sanctioned by their religion, and which has been established among the customs of many eastern nations: it will easily be perceived that we allude to the practice of polygamy. According to the institutions of the Koran, every Mussulman may have four wives, and as many concubines as he can afford to maintain. Reasoning from this article of their creed, and impressed with an idea of eastern voluptuousness, many Europeans are of opinion that every Turk has a seraglio, in which are immured, for the pleasure of their master, four wives and an indefinite number of female slaves. But such a conclusion is not quite correct. Nature assures us all that the human heart can be sincerely attached to only one female at one time; and we are likewise convinced that in the attachment of the heart must be sought the greater part of the pleasure arising from the intercourse of the sexes. The Mahommedans are not less convinced of this truth than we are; and they are not always so great enemies to their own felicity as to exchange happiness with one for a state of indifference with many. Few young

Turks, whose feelings are yet lively, and whose hearts are consequently capable of sincere attachment, have more than one wife. The practice of polygamy is chiefly confined to those whose wealth induces them to assume an appearance of grandeur; or to those, who, having passed the age of affection, vainly endeavour by variety to revive those passions which nature has begun to extinguish. "A Turkish lady of fashion," says Mr Madden, "is wooed by an invisible lover; in the progress of the courtship a hyacinth is occasionally dropt in her path, by an unknown hand; and the female attendant at the bath does the office of a Mercury, and talks of a certain Effendi demanding a lady's love, as a nightingale aspiring to the affections of a rose! A clove, wrapped up in an embroidered handkerchief, is the least token of condescension the nightingale can expect; but a written billet doux is an implement of love which the gentle rose is unable to manufacture. The father of the lady is at length solicited for her hand, and he orders her to give it, and to love, honour, and obey her husband; in short, they are married by proxy, before the Cadi, and the light of her lord's countenance first beams on her in the nuptial chamber. This change in her condition is one which every spinster envies; if she be the only wife, she reigns in the harem over a host of slaves; if there be two or three more, she shares with them the delights of domestic sway. Every week, at least, she is blessed with a periodical return of her husband's love; he enters the harem at noonday; and at sunset, after the fatigue of sauntering from one bazaar to another, and from the public divan to the private chambers, he performs his evening-ablutions. One obsequious lady fetches a vial of rose-water to perfume his beard,—another bears a looking-glass, with a mother-of-pearl handle,—another carries an embroidered napkin,—and supper is brought in by a host of slaves and servants, for in most harems the ordinary attendants have access to the women's apartments. The women stand before him while he eats, and when he finishes, a number of additional dishes are brought in for the ladies, whose breeding consists in eating with the finger and thumb only, and not in devouring indecorously the sweatmeats, of which they are exceedingly fond. When supper is removed, and the servants disappear, there are few harems where small bottles of rosoglio are not produced, and of this liquor, I have seen the ladies take so many as three or four little glasses in the course of ten minutes. One of the female slaves generally presents the pipe on one knee; and sometimes one of the wives brings the coffee, and kisses the hand of her lord at the same time; this ceremony every wife goes through in the morning, none daring to sit down in his presence but such as have the honour of being mothers; but in the evening, there is very little etiquette, and very little truth in the assertion of Pouqueville, that 'the Turks retire to their harems without relaxing the least particle of their gravity.' The reverse of this statement is near the truth; the orgies of the evening, in most harems, are conducted with all the levity of licentiousness, and the gravity of the Moslems totally disappears; their roars of laughter are to be heard in the adjoining houses; and, in my opinion, the gravity of the Turk during the day is only the exhaustion of his spirits from previous excitement."

Turkish Baths.] Our readers, who have doubtless heard much of the luxury of Turkish baths, will be amused with Captain Frankland's account of one of the principal of these establishments: "We were first," says he, "ushered into a large square antichamber, around which were numerous Turks squatting and lying down upon divans, smoking their chibouques

and sipping sherbet. Upon these divans dirty-looking mattresses are spread, and each candidate for the bath is conducted by half-naked bathing men to one of these couches. Here he is to undress himself and leave his clothes; he is supplied with a wrapper, a large cloth or towel to tie around his middle, a large pair of wooden clogs raised upon two pieces of wood, at least six inches from the dirty and streaming floor, and he is then conducted to an inner apartment (at the door of which he leaves his wrapper,) underneath a dome lighted at the top, and amid an atmosphere of steam. The sensation upon entering this horrible scene is the most oppressive thing possible; for such is the heat kept up by the stoves and flues underneath this pandemonium, that at first the bather is entirely deprived of the power of breathing, and until he is relieved by the copious perspiration which soon bursts out all over him he feels as if he were going to expire. The first thing that strikes his eye, when he has sufficiently recovered himself to be sensible of what is passing around him, is a number of naked figures with shaven heads, but long top-knots and long beards or mustaches, lying about upon boards, undergoing the various operations of rubbing, scrubbing, lathering, and champooing. The Turk yields himself up entirely to the hands of the operator, who, leaning or stooping over him, turns him over as he would a dead body, first lifts one limb, and then another, letting them fall again as if they were masses of inanimate matter, cracks all his joints in succession, and thumps and kneads him as he would a lump of clay or a piece of dough. Your unhappy self, meanwhile, is seated upon a wet and slimy board by the side of a fountain, into which hot or cold water can be conducted at pleasure by means of two brass cocks. Your savage-looking and naked tormentor first begins his annoyances by scrubbing you all over with a kind of glove on his right hand, made of horsehair; your delicate European skin, not used to such a scarifying operation, peels off in rolls upon your limbs and person, to the great disgust of yourself and triumph of your infidel persecutor, who, calling your attention to these symptoms of effeminacy, knocks them off with his hand with an air of contempt. But how shall I describe the horror which I felt, when I found that I too was to be subject to the champooing and the kneading of my whole frame? I knew that it was in vain to resist, and yielded myself up, as I should have done into the hands of an executioner, with mingled feelings of disgust and resignation; but when the garlick-breathing Moslem, stooping over my prostrate person, rained down upon me torrents of his own perspiration, I felt that I should die with sickness and despair; but I had no remedy. I went through it all with the feelings of a martyr, and was recalled from my dreams of death and infernus by being seated in a corner, and covered from head to foot in a cloud of thick soapsuds, which, steaming into my eyes, nose, mouth, and ears, awakened me into a sense of mundane existence, and comforted me, while I smarted all over, with a feeling of cleanliness. This was rapidly succeeded by copious ablutions of hot and then of cooler water. I now looked about me, and saw that my companions were, like myself, undergoing the latter stages of the process, and perceived, through a dense cloud of steam, our friend the chaoush yielding up his fat carcass to the hands of the tormentors. We could now laugh at what we had gone through, and after a little while rose from our corners, and, wrapping the friendly cloth round our waists, proceeded upon our clogs towards the door, where we were supplied with hot wrappers, but were obliged to scrutinize them rather closely, not being all quite clean, and were conducted

each to our couch, where we reposed until the perspiration had entirely subsided, drinking sherbet, coffee, and smoking chibouques. It must be allowed, however, that in spite of the disgust with which a stranger can hardly fail of being inspired upon his first experience of a Turkish bath, that the sensations produced, when it is over, and during his repose upon his couch, are of the most agreeable nature. His body feels quite restored to vigour and elasticity, and there is a satinny smoothness of his skin to which he was before a stranger; he feels that all obstruction of the pores has been removed, and that he has been most thoroughly cleansed from all external impurities."

Turkish Women.] Women are generally employed in Turkey in the management of domestic concerns,—in the care of the children,—and in working with their needles, particularly at embroidery. They seldom go abroad for the purpose of making purchases, since this is an office which every Turkish woman thinks below her. The different articles are either sent from the shops for their choice, or they are brought in by itinerant female merchants. So refined are their notions of delicacy, that ladies who pique themselves upon the purity of their manners will not venture to walk unveiled in their own gardens at all hours, unless it be well-ascertained that no one can intrude upon them. When a lady goes to the bath she is always accompanied by other ladies of the family, and followed by female slaves and eunuchs; and, until far advanced in life, does not go to the mosque, the law dispensing with her attendance upon public worship. In fact, women of rank do not often appear in public, because it is unfashionable. None but poor women, therefore, are generally to be met with in the streets, and they are always veiled, and careful to preserve the utmost decency of appearance, never speaking to any one. To stare at a woman in public is considered a mark of vulgarity, and to insult her with an indecent word would subject a man to be seized by the police, and have his brains knocked out in case of resistance. The politeness of the Turks with respect to women is very different from that of Europeans; if they by chance meet one, be it even the wife of their nearest relation, they immediately turn their head aside not to see her; and what we should consider as a want of civility, or even as a mark of contempt, is among them a token of deference and respect. Every family lives apart. The husband—supposed by many to be an absolute tyrant—cannot even enter his own harem, when a strange lady happens to be on a visit to his wife, without giving the guest time to veil and prepare to receive him. The sultan himself would not dare to infringe this law. Neither men nor women habitually eat together. Turkish women, Dr Madden affirms, however high their rank, can neither read nor write. Reading and writing form no part of the education of a woman in Turkey. "In all my travels," says the Doctor, "I only met one woman who could read and write, and that was in Damietta; she was a Levantine Christian, and her peculiar talent was looked upon as something superhuman." The chief amusement of the ladies consists in visiting the public baths or their near relations; and as their visits are not frequent, they usually stay fifteen or twenty days, and take all their young children and a few slaves with them. As every family is anxious to have these visits returned, the greater part of the year is often spent in this pleasant way among those individuals whom they most love. Turkish women, even the sultanas, nurse their own children, and would account it the greatest affliction to be obliged to transfer the performance of this duty to another. When

sickness compels them to submit to this, the nurse never quits the house, and her situation is the happiest that can be imagined. She is generally some young slave, who receives her freedom the very day she undertakes the office, and is called *Sudana*, 'the mother of milk,' or 'milk-mother.' Considered thenceforward as one of the family, she is treated with the greatest attention. Children are commonly weaned about the age of twelve or fourteen months. The child's cradle is generally very beautifully constructed, of walnut or hazel wood, and ornamented with mother-of-pearl. Physic is generally practised by women, who have little science, but great experience. Throughout the empire there are no *accoucheurs*; women only officiate, who are styled Eben-Cadinn. The presence of a man at an accouchement would disgrace the family for ever.

Turkish Religion.] The religion of the Turks is the Mahommedan, so named from its founder Mahomet. Its doctrines and rites are promulgated in the Koran, a wild and incongruous mass of truth and fable, religious feeling and impiety; yet it indicates a very accurate knowledge of human nature, and a just perception of the character of the depraved beings for whose acceptance it was intended. In place of the allegories of Paganism, the high spiritualities of Christianity, and the typical ritual of Judaism, it offers to the contemplation of its votaries the most fascinating ideas of voluptuous enjoyment in a material Paradise. Like the books of the Mosaic law, the Koran is at once the civil and ecclesiastical code of its votaries. The Mahommedans are divided into two great sects, viz.—the followers of Omar and the followers of Ali. The former acknowledge the four Khalifs Abu-beker, Omar, Othman, and Ali to have been the lawful successors of their prophet, and believe in the Souna or Book of Oral Traditions collected by Al-Bokharee; whereas the latter pronounce Abu-beker, Omar, and Othman to have been usurpers, and esteem Ali alone of all these to have been the lawful successor of Mahomet. They dignify Ali with the name of the 'Vicar of God,' and curse Omar, whose name in their theology is used for the name of the devil. The Persians alone are of the sect of Ali, and are regarded by the Turks and all other Mahommedans as heretics. By the sect of Omar the Turkish Sultan is regarded as the Khalif or supreme head of the Mussulman faith. This high dignity was transferred by a solemn deed of the last of the Abassides in Egypt to Sultan Selim in 1516, who thus succeeded to all the prerogatives of the Khalifat as the legitimate successor of Mahomet. All Mussulmen believe in the unity of God, and in Mahomet as his prophet. The commandments of the Mahommedan law are five in number: viz. 1*st*, The observance of prayer (*namaz*) five times a day; 2*d*, The observance of the feast of Ramadhan or Ramazan; 3*d*, The giving of alms and other deeds of charity; 4*th*, The performing of a pilgrimage to Mecca (*hajilique*) at least once in the individual's lifetime; and 5*th*, The observing of external purity of body (*abdechte*). To the observance of these leading commandments are added some other practical injunctions which are deemed of minor importance. The principal of these are: the rigorous observance of Friday; the rite of circumcision; and abstinence from wine and every fermented liquor, and also from the flesh of pork, and of any animal which has died by suffocation. All these injunctions are scrupulously observed by the Turks, with the exception of that which prohibits the use of wine. Friday is accounted a day peculiarly sacred by the Turks, because that on it they believe their prophet saved himself from his persecutors by flying from Mecca to Medina, with which event the

Mahommedan era called the *Hegira* commenced on the 22d of July 622 A. D. The Mosaic account of the creation of the world is received by the Mahommedans; but they affirm that the tables of the law, and the pen with which they were written existed before the creation. They entertain a profound reverence for angels; and believe in the existence of an inferior race of spirits whom they call the good and evil genii. Mahomet made his religious creed subservient to the courage of his followers. To meet death in fighting against infidels is the surest passport to the Paradise of the Alcoran. But the details of this extraordinary superstition more properly belong to our account of Arabia, in which country it originated.

The supreme priesthood and the sovereignty were united in the person of Mahomet; the first caliphs preserved the same prerogatives; and even until this day the authority of the *Mufti*, or supreme interpreter of the law, is interposed to every act of the sultan. The *Ulemas* or doctors of the law hold the next ecclesiastical rank in Turkey. They form a respected and therefore a powerful body,—a species of nobility in the State; they engross the most lucrative employments; the judicial power in all matters of religion is vested in them alone; their persons are sacred; and their goods are exempted from liability to confiscation. To their moral influence they also unite the authority of physical force, their numbers with that of their various dependents amounting to 30,000 in the city of Constantinople alone.

Among the various religious orders or *Dervishes* of the Turks, the *Mevlevis* and the *Ectachis* form the principal classes. These species of recluses reside in the *teché* or monasteries under the direction of a superior, and take upon themselves the three vows of poverty, celibacy, and obedience. The Mevlevis do not subject themselves to the same amount of corporal chastisement as the other dervishes; but they spend a great part of their time in a wild sort of religious pantomine or dance, which is always opened with a sermon from the superior. However, the Turks, notwithstanding their high veneration for the ministers of religion, do not greatly esteem the Monkish fraternity. Indeed Mahomet forbade the introduction of monastic orders into his religion, and for 300 years after his death there were no Monks among the Mahommedans.

The magnificence of Islamism appears in its principal mosques or *djamis* and establishments for religious instruction. These mosques are supported from the *moucateas* or proper domains of the church—a third part of all the conquered lands having been originally set apart for this purpose by the Turkish chiefs—and the *vacoufs* which are a species of reversion heirships. When the family of the alienator is extinct, the religious become *ipso facto* proprietors. The church—which never dies—is a constant gainer by this institution; and this mode of acquiring estates is adopted in the case of reversions from Christians as well as Mahommedans, the governors of mosques not objecting to legacies even from infidels.

Turkish Language and Literature.] The language of the Osmanlies or Turks is a dialect of the Toorkee language, which is the common tongue of all the Nomadic tribes, from the Oxus to the Ural Tau, and from the frontier of Tibit to the Caspian Sea. It has been erroneously supposed that the language of the Turks is still more barbarous than their manners. This is a great mistake; as it is inferior to none whether ancient or modern in softness, flexibility of sound, and harmony. Its rules are so admirably simple that it seems rather to have been formed by an academy

of learned men than by a number of erratic and illiterate tribes. It must be remarked however that the Osmanlic dialect is the most corrupted of all the dialects of the Toorkee, because it is most mixed with foreign words and phrases, though at the same time it is the most polished and elegant. But all the dialects of that extensive language very closely approximate; and all the different Tartar tribes, however numerous and widely scattered, can understand and converse with each other by means of it. It has every title to be esteemed as one of the most refined and perfect of the Oriental languages. It is not to be considered however as the very same which was brought from the wilds of Tartary in the 9th century by the Turcomans, or by the Toorkee tribes who accompanied Jenghis Khagan in the 13th. It has received a very strong infusion of Arabic and Persian words, not merely in the terms of science and art, but in its ordinary tissue and familiar phrases. These are all connected by the regular grammar of the language, which is remarkable for clearness, simplicity, and force. Its style is far less adorned than the bombastic Persian, and as free from metaphor or hyperbole as that of a good English or French historian. On the whole the Toorkee bears more resemblance to the good sense of Europe than to the rhetorical parade of Asia, and is remarkable for its downright and picturesque naivete of expression. It is written in the Arabic character, which was adopted by the Toorks soon after their entrance into Persia, for they had no alphabet of their own. We have evidence of this from Haitho who wrote in the 13th century, 'The Iogours' (oigoors) says he, 'have their own letters. The inhabitants of Toorkistaun are called Turcs, they have no letters of their own, but use Arabic letters, whether in cities or camps.'—*See Jaubert's Turkish Grammar.* Like the Arabs and Hebrews, the Turks write from the right to the left. The golden age of Turkish literature was the reign of Solyman in the 16th century. It is thought that the number of works extant in the Turkish language may amount to 30,000; but the greater part of these are merely comments upon the Koran, which is their civil as well as their religious code. Many of the Turks, however, receive what may be accounted a good education. They are often well-acquainted with the historians, the poets, and philosophers of Arabia and Persia; to speak with purity and ease, is esteemed an elegant qualification; and, notwithstanding the general gravity of external demeanour, a sarcastic and sprightly wit is by no means uncommon among them. Turkish ignorance has certainly been magnified in the reports of Europeans. It is hardly possible to conceive that an empire so great, and at one time so warlike, should be entirely destitute of any species of literature. But the policy of the Ottoman government has ever been to limit knowledge to individual classes; and, wherever this spirit exists in any government, the general knowledge of the country must decay. In the elementary seminaries, reading, writing, and the Alcoran are taught; but many places are destitute even of these schools, and the only instruction which the children receive relates to external religious ceremonies.

Libraries.] According to Von Hamner, there are in Constantinople 35 public libraries, of which some are elegant edifices, well-filled with oriental manuscripts. There are many others throughout the country scarcely known to any one, yet rich in geographical and historical works. They are generally attached to mosques, furnished for the accommodation of such as resort to them, and are constantly attended by a librarian. The library of the seraglio, according to professor Carlyle, who visited it, contains

1291 MSS. most of them Arabic; also a few good Persian and Turkish authors; but scarcely a Greek, Latin, or Hebrew work of the least importance. Of the Koran there are 17 copies, and 143 commentaries on it. The collection of traditions relative to Mahomet forms 182 volumes, and there are 324 works on Mahommedan jurisprudence. Armenian books are rare at Constantinople, owing perhaps to the destruction of the library of the patriarch by fire in 1826. Not long ago a firman prohibited the sale of Arabic, Persian, or Turkish MSS. to non-Mussulmans.

The Tartars.] At the mouth of the Danube, in the Dobrudska, in the valleys of the Balkan, and around the capital, considerable numbers of Tartars are located. They are of middle stature, with a fine shape, small black and expressive eyes, fresh complexions, and dark auburn hair. They are a frank, hospitable, and peaceful race. Their dress is oriental like that of the Turks; their dwellings are clean, and their occupation is husbandry and trade.

The Armenians.] The Armenians in European Turkey came from the sources of the Euphrates and Tigris in very ancient times. They have preserved their own language, but also speak that of the country. They have likewise a peculiar sacred language which is only understood by their priests. They are distinguished by their olive complexion, lively eyes, aquiline nose, regular features, and slender shape. They lead in general a sober and retired life, and are of avaricious habits.

Population of Greece.] The whole population of Modern Greece is composed of three races, Turks, Albanians, and Greeks: equally distinct in their origin, manners, and character. With these are mingled a small number of Jews, Armenians, and Wallachians. In what proportion these three races are combined, it is impossible accurately to determine. It is certain that the Turks are fewest in number. They are most numerous in Macedonia, Thessaly, and Negropont, are thinly scattered over the rest of Greece and Albania, and scarcely exist at all in the islands.

Albanians.] The Albanians constitute the next class, and are very numerous. As to the etymon of the name, and, consequently the origin of the people so denominated, we are much in the dark. A people called *Albani*, and the city *Albanopolis*, are mentioned by Ptolemy; and the city so called is placed by him in 41° 6′ N. lat. whilst the Albani are placed north of the Taulantii. They were, of course, an Illyrian tribe. Albanopolis is mentioned by Pliny, and is assigned by him to the district of the Almopians, who, by Ptolemy, are placed south of the Albani. There can be no reasonable doubt, that as both the Albani and Albanopolis are described by Ptolemy, and the latter is mentioned by both Ptolemy and Pliny, the Albani were the ancestors of the modern Albanians. History makes no mention of the extinction of the Illyrians, nor of the entrance of a new tribe which has since grown up into the modern community of Albanians. The Byzantine historians, to whom we are chiefly indebted for an account of the history and progress of this now interesting people, mention them at once as the inhabitants of a part of the region in which they now dwell—the high tract of mountains on the frontiers of Illyricum and Macedonia. It is probable that, on the extinction of the Macedonian power, always formidable to the Illyrians, and the depopulation of Epirus and the dismantling of all her towns to the number of 70, the Illyrians would gradually encroach on Epirus, now rendered comparatively defenceless. Among the Illyrian tribes the Albani would gradually gain the ascendency, till the name of Illyrian would be lost in that of Albanian.

In the reign of Constantine the Great, southern Illyria, or that part which bordered on the ancient Epirus, was erected into a prefecturate called *Epirus Novus.* Hence the new denomination serves as a reason to explain why the famous Scanderbeg, born in the Illyrian provinces, assumed the title of prince of Epirus. During the 11th century, they bore a part in some of the wars of the Greek empire. In the times of the separate principality, which, under the name of Acarnania or Ætolia, was erected by Michael Angelus, in the commencement of the 13th century, we find them extending themselves by a predatory warfare; and spreading themselves at intervals over the whole of Epirus, Thessaly, &c. in the middle of the 14th century, in spite of a powerful expedition against them by the second Andronicus. They ennobled themselves by the powerful resistance which they made to the Turkish sultans, Morad and Mohammed, under the auspices of the celebrated George Castriota, who defeated the Turks in 22 battles. He ruled over the territory extending along the coast, from the river Bojana and the Palus Labeates, or lake Schiabak, or lake of Scutari, to the mouth of the Thyamis, now Kalama, opposite the isle of Corfu. It was in his days that the designation of Albania prevailed, as the Albani of Ptolemy were properly his subjects, and at that time inhabited the districts of Kroja, Tyrano, and Dukagini, and to whom he was chiefly indebted for his victories. The Albani, strictly so called, are at present denominated Mercditi, and live in the pashalik of Scutari. The appellations Albani and Albania are of Roman and Greek origin; for in their own language they call themselves Arnauts, and their country Arnautlich. They differ in language, manners, and dress, from both Turks and Greeks, and as a people are greatly superior to both. Various colonies of them have settled in Greece, from time to time, even more than four centuries since. It is probable that many of them have lost their distinctive character from this circumstance, and become blended with the mass of the Greek population. The whole of the peasantry in Attica, and the eastern part of Bœotia, and one-fifth of the inhabitants of Athens itself, are Albanians. They are found preserving their distinctive character, and are generally employed as shepherds in the districts of Elis, Argolis, Arcadia, and Laconia. In Thessaly they are estimated at one-third of the population. In the districts south of Mount Œta, as Doris, Phocis, and part of Bœotia, they are more numerous. Considering the revolutions Greece has undergone, the Greek population cannot be unmixed. Many of the mountaineers may be of Albanian descent, or the offspring of other tribes, distinct in manners and character from the people of plains. Major Leake remarks, that the Greek mountaineers closely resemble the Albanians in character and customs. If we suppose the Albanian population to be double that of the Turkish—and it can hardly be less, in the rising circumstances of the Albanians—or 1,200,000, then the whole population of these two classes in Greece will amount to 1,800,000; while that of the Greeks may be 1,600,000 or nearly equal.

The Greeks.] The Greeks are numerous in Ætolia; and in Acarnania, now Karli-Ili, they form the entire population. In Joannina, the capital of Southern Albania, they are the most numerous and respectable class of inhabitants; and in the towns and villages of that province, they generally constitute the basis of the population. Every where the Greeks form a conspicuous part of the population of towns; and in all those south of Mount Œta, with a very few exceptions, they are the great majority of the population. Now that the Turks have been expelled from the Morea,

the Greeks may be said to form the entire population, with the exception of a few districts, where the Albanians are regularly colonized. The descendants of the ancient Hellenes still exhibit in their persons the beautiful classical forms which we admire in the works of ancient masters. They are still as giddy, vacillating, vain, and boasting, as they were in the times of Alcibiades; but they have also proved themselves not less gallant than their heroic ancestors. They have in general a fine and slender shape, their motions are noble, their features expressive, and their dress clean and elegant. The women are slender, with fine features, and manners full of dignity; their countenance is expressive. Mr Emerson maintains that on an examination of the traits of Greek character peculiar to each district, we shall upon the whole, find the seeds of numerous virtues, however slightly developed, still discernible under a mass of vices; and which, when properly cultivated, under an equitable government, cannot fail to raise the Greeks high in the scale of nations. The Albanians have long since ceased to be considered either Mussulmans or Greeks. In the Morea, a closer connection with the Turks, and various minor causes, have produced a character less amiable and exalted than that of the Roumelich, the inhabitants of what is now termed Eastern and Western Greece. In the Messenians, or natives of the south-western coast, the traits of debasement are peculiarly perceptible. But there are two singular exceptions from these remarks to be found in the Morea: the inhabitants of Lalla in Elis, and those of Maina in the south-eastern promontory. The former are a colony of Albanian peasantry; the latter are the descendants of the ancient Spartans, and seem possessed of the common virtues of barbarians, accompanied by almost all their vices. In the Hyduots and Spezziots we find much to admire and esteem, especially among the higher orders.

Greek Religion.] Christianity nowhere appears more degraded than among the modern Greeks: they have covered it with the accumulated abuses of more than twelve centuries. The Greek church never felt the benign influence of general knowledge, nor the salutary control of rival sects; it never knew the genial influence of a reformation, as in the west of Europe, by which popery itself was in some measure benefitted. The crooked policy or fanatical bigotry of the Greek princes who filled the throne of Byzantium,—the pious frauds of their monks and papas, combined with the credulity and superstition of an ignorant populace, nursed but never controlled,—have been continually loading it with new errors, new absurdities, and new corruptions. Though its priests are more numerous than those of any other church, its rites and forms infinitely complicated, and its fasts and festivals absorb about two-thirds of the year, it is scarcely possible to trace one genuine idea of Christianity in the minds of either the clergy or the laity, or one trait of its influence on their practice. It is not easy to discriminate the religion of the Greek church from that of the Romish, there is so close a similarity of the one to the other in its doctrines, and even in its forms. Though they are professed worshippers of Christ, in opposition to the Mohammedans, yet it is certain that the *Panagia* or Holy Virgin has more worship and more worshippers than 'He who was made flesh, and dwelt among us.' She has, in fact, succeeded among the modern Greeks to the worship formerly paid to the virgin-goddess Minerva. In every cottage you will find her picture, with a lamp burning before it. In the number of its sacraments, the invocation of saints, the belief of the real presence, auricular confession, masses and prayers for the dead, the Greek church agrees perfectly with that of Rome.

The Eucharist is administered to new-born infants; and the chrism or sacred unction being a part or appendage of the baptismal ceremony, is substituted for confirmation. The sacrament of the *Euchelaion* or Holy Oil is not, like the extreme unction of the Romish church, confined to the dying, but administered to devout persons upon the slightest malady, or even in perfect health. On Holy Thursday, the Greek Archbishop, like the Pope, washes the feet of 12 priests or monks. It is not certain whether the Greek church admits of a purgatory, at least in the same sense as the Roman Catholics; and the Greeks themselves, at the present day, are too ignorant to be able to tell. The most palpable difference in the eyes of the common people, between the two communions, is that the Greeks abhor the Popish images, and employ only paintings in their churches. The number of fasts and festivals among them is enormous. The secular Greeks have four lents, and the *Caloyers* or monks have two more. The first of these secular fasts lasts two months, the second forty days, the third is variable in its length, and the fourth lasts from the first of August to the festival of the Assumption. Every Wednesday is a fast, because it was on that day Judas received the money for betraying Christ; and every Friday is kept in remembrance of the crucifixion. A vast number of saints' days are also observed; so that of the whole year, there are only about 130 days free of festivals or fasts. Their clergy are made up of two bodies: the monks, and the *Papades* or priests. Both are extremely ignorant. They are moreover excessively numerous; and the people, who are extremely credulous and superstitious, are entirely under their influence. In Albania the priests are much less numerous and much less respected. All classes are devoutly attached to the doctrines of their church, and hold other sects in such contempt that they regard themselves and the Russians as the only Christians. The few well-informed men among them are generally sceptics, or lean that way: as has always been, and always will be, the case, where religion is debased by absurdities which shock the understanding of all those who are disposed to think for themselves.

The Greek Synod and Patriarch.] The Greek synod, at whose head is the patriarch, is composed of 10 archbishops chosen by the primate, who cannot alone decide in any affair whether civil or ecclesiastical, nor even nominate to a vacant see, without the consent of the synod. When the clergy are dissatisfied with their patriarch they memorialize the Porte, and demand the departure of their superior, with which demand the sultan immediately complies, enjoining the synod to choose a new head, whose election he confirms. The Porte never otherwise deposes the patriarch, unless, as in a recent case, it be on the charge of high-treason. The patriarch and archbishops pay annually into the imperial treasury 25,000 piastres. The patriarch has a certain jurisdiction in civil affairs, taking cognizance of wills, marriages, divorces, and even minor offences committed by members of the Greek church. He holds a court in his own house, and has a prison to which he can consign any Greek, lay or clerical.

Greek Language] The modern Greeks speak a language resembling that of their ancestors in almost every respect; but time, conquest, slavery, and the barbarism of ages, have introduced some new terms, and altered the rules of syntax in certain points.[1] The Greeks, however, understand pretty

[1] In the Romaic alphabet the same sound is given to no fewer than 5 letters, or combinations of letters; η, ι, υ, ει, οι, are all pronounced alike, as the sound of the *e* in *me*. αι and ε are both pronounced in the same manner like *a* in *ale*. B is sounded like

exactly the ancient Greek when it is spoken in the pronunciation now in use, which seems to have been that of the time of Constantine. As the two languages accord in so many points, it might be well to consider the modern Greek as the vulgar dialect, and to recall the ancient if practicable as the language of letters. In Constantinople the Greeks speak both Greek and Turkish, but only the former to each other; in Asia Minor, along the coast, they generally use the Turkish, but can speak Greek; and in the interior parts of Asia Minor they know no other language than Turkish. Dr Robertson has published a very useful little grammar of the modern Greek language.

CHAP. IV.—GOVERNMENT—REVENUE—MILITARY AND MARINE FORCE—COMMERCE.

Government.] There is no security under the Turkish government either for life or property. The sultan is entirely despotic, uniting in himself, like the first caliphs, the whole power of the State. He not only makes the laws but also executes them, and is at the same time the supreme head of the church. The lives and fortunes of his subjects are entirely in his hands; but he is obliged to respect the laws of the Koran. His title is that of ***Padishah*** or 'prince.' The succession is hereditary in the male line of Osman's family, but is not always allowed to descend in regular order from father to son; the people, and the military—as is well-known—frequently exercise a violent right of election, and elevate another member of the royal family than the heir direct to the throne. The sultan is not crowned at his inauguration, but is solemnly girded with the sabre of Osman, and swears to support Islamism. The mother of the reigning sultan is called the *Sultana Valide;* she enjoys distinguished prerogatives, and a fixed revenue, and is usually possessed of great influence in the State. The first of the sultan's wives or *Kadin* who brings him a son is called *Chasseki Sultana.* The heir of the throne is educated under close confinement in a part of the seraglio called the *Kafer* or 'cage.' All the sultan's sons indeed are kept in a state of imprisonment; the daughters are generally espoused to viziers and pashas. The sultan's titles run in a fine style of Eastern hyperbole, thus: "Most Puissant and Highest Monarch of the Turks, King above all Kings, a King that dwelleth upon the Earthly Paradise, Son of Mahomet, Keeper of the Grave of the Christian God, Lord of the Tree of Life, and of the River Fliskey, Prior of the Earthly Paradise, Conqueror of the Macedonians the Seed of Great Alexander, Prince of the Kingdoms of Tartary, Mesopotamia, Media, and of the Martial Mamelukes, Anatolia, Bithynia, Asia, Armenia, Servia, Thracia, Morea, Wallachia, Moldavia, and of all Warlike Hungary, Sovereign Lord and Commander of all Greece, Persia, both the Arabias, the Most Noble Kingdom of Egypt, Tremisen, and the African Empire, of Trebisond, and the Most Glorious Constantinople, Lord of all the White and Black Seas, of the Holy Cities Mecca and Medina, shining with Di-

υ; ν before some letters is a harsh gutteral; before the soft vowels its sound is liquid: thus γυναικα is pronounced *geenaka.* The modern Greeks have no symbol for the English sound of *d;* but they pronounce the τ after ν in this manner, τον τροπον, *ton dropon.* They pay no regard to quantity, but all their books are printed with accents. They have rejected the dual number and middle voice. The augments are retained, but in vulgar usage are frequently omitted. In the conjugation of verbs, the Romaic differs from the classic Greek in respect to some moods and tenses.

vine Glory, Commander of all Things that are to be commanded, and the Strongest and Mightiest Champion of the Wide World, a Warrior appointed by Heaven in the Edge of the Sword, a Persecutor of his enemies, a most perfect Jewel of the Blessed Tree, the Chiefest Keeper of the Crucified God, &c."

The principal officer of State in Turkey is the *vizier* or *Sadri-azem;* if he does not enjoy the whole power of his master, he is made at least responsible for all his acts, and is not unfrequently sacrificed to his caprice or the resentment of the people. He has the care of the whole empire; he manages the revenue, administers justice both in civil and criminal affairs, and commands the armies. Upon his appointment the sultan puts into his hands the seals of the empire, which are the badge of his office, and which he always wears upon his breast. His income amounts to 600,000 dollars a year, exclusive of presents and other perquisites.

The *Divan* or *Riquiabi-houmayoune* is composed of three principal ministers: the minister of the interior or *Kehaya-bey;* the minister of the exterior or *Reis-effendi;* and the minister of finances or *Tefterdar-effendi.* The ministry assembles twice a week in ordinary council, on which occasion the mufti or the vizier presides. The Ulemas are represented in this council by two *Cadi-askieres;* and its deliberations are occasionally assisted by ex-ministers who have received the sultan's commands to that effect. The extraordinary divan or *Ajack-divani* is summoned only on great occasions, and consists of all the officers and chief personages of the State. The official interpreter is called *Dragoman.*

The provinces are governed by *Pashas, Ayans,* and *Waivodes,* who in their administrative form imitate those of the divan. The pashas unite the administrative and military power. The ensign of their authority is a standard to which are attached so many horse-tails, the number of which indicates the rank of the pasha. A pasha of three tails or *Miri-alem* is the highest in rank, and commands the troops of his own pashalik when ordered by the sultan. A *Miri-mirani* or pasha of two tails must march when required under a Miri-alem. A *Miri-liva,* or pasha of one tail, is still further restricted in authority. The pashas of Romelia and Anatolia are the highest in rank; the former is at the head of all the European pashas; and the latter presides over the Asiatic pashas. The Ayans are superior officers named by the Porte for particular services. They have occasionally endeavoured to make themselves independent, but their power and number have been greatly reduced by the present sultan. The Waivode is the governor of a city or district detached from a pashalik. The seraglio has officers peculiar to itself. The superintendent of the women is called *Kislar-aga;* he has the command of the black eunuchs, and is himself one. The commandant of the white eunuchs is called *Capi-aga;* he receives all the petitions which are to be delivered to the emperor. The number of inferior officers is very great, but an enumeration of them is not necessary.

Laws.] The laws of the Turks are founded upon the Koran. But as Mahomet was not acquainted with life in its most civilized form, his regulations were, in the advancing stages of society, soon found to be defective. The Turkish divines have endeavoured to remedy this defect, by commentaries on the Koran; and their opinions have in many cases been sanctioned as laws. The commentator who is chiefly respected in Turkey, is said to be Abou Hanifa. The laws of the Turks appear frequently to be founded on the most correct notions of natural justice; but the happi-

ness of the subject depends not only on the excellence of the laws, but on the rectitude with which they are executed, and an incorruptible judge is somewhat uncommon in this country. It has long been supposed that no fundamental law existed in Turkey; and certainly this is the case if we are to understand by the law any thing like a constitution, or treaty betwixt the ruler and the people. There are, however, certain laws in existence promulgated by different sultans which none of their successors have yet ventured to transgress, such as the *Kanunnameh* of Mahommed II. and Selim III.

Revenue.] The annual revenue of the Turkish empire is: 1*st*, Public, the *Miri*, that of the state; 2*d*, Private, or that which belongs to the sultan personally. The sources of the revenue are: the capitation or *kharatsha* tax on all who are not Mussulmen,—the customs, a kind of land-tax, amounting, it is said, to no less than six shillings an acre,—the confiscated estates of wealthy pashas, who are often accused of crimes for the sake of their riches,—and the yearly tribute received from Egypt, Wallachia, Moldavia, and Servia. The impositions on Christians are altogether arbitrary, and may consequently be extended to the most oppressive degree. The sum generally arising from all these sources is estimated by Balbi to amount to £10,310,000. The sum transmitted from the great pashaliks, and the duties payable both at the custom-houses and on certain articles of consumption, continually vary. Even by the best informed Turks the entire revenue is estimated sometimes at 12,000,000, sometimes at 20,000,000 of piastres. The annual capitation tax falls on the rayas or Christians alone. It is proportioned to the means of the payer: the rayas of each district being divided into 3 classes, who pay 16, 12, and 8 piastres respectively. From this compulsory tribute, the clergy, the women, the children, and all who through age are incapable of supporting themselves, are exempted; so that the number of persons subjected to it, after deducting those on whom it does not operate, do not probably exceed 800,000, of whom one-fourth may belong to the first and second classes. Assuming the piastre at 4 shillings value—though at the present moment it probably is not worth 2—and the whole amount at 7,400,000 piastres, the gross produce of the kharaj would be £1,480,000. But the expense of collection will certainly not be less than one-eighth of this sum. Although the state of the Turkish people differs from that of the Christian and Jewish subjects of the Porte, by the political rights which they enjoy, and by their exemption from the poll-tax and other horribly vexatious imposts reserved for the subjects who are not Mussulmans, they nevertheless pay quite enough. The agriculturists, besides tithes,—the merchants, besides enormous custom-house duties,—the artists and the workmen, besides the expenses which they voluntarily contribute to their respective corporations, besides the innumerable vexations inflicted upon them by the local authorities, also pay a mass of taxes: such are those under the name of presents for the feast of the Bairam; of expenses for the fast of the Ramazan; of presents for the pacha, and for his highness's stirrup; of expenses for the repair of his seraglio and his country-houses; of expenses for his stables, his kitchen, and pantry. After which come the taxes called *equivalents;* as for example, the equivalent for the building of men-of-war; that for the sheep for provisioning the seraglio and the capital, &c. All these taxes, unequally distributed and collected with violence, would be less ruinous were they not tripled by the rapacity of the functionaries charged with their collection; and, as if the sultan were moderate in his

demands, as if he left to his functionaries something to glean, his absolute lieutenant and his pashas in the provinces, who are frequently changed every six months; compel the people, for their own account, to pay an imposition which is called *kudoomiye*, or congratulation on their happy arrival! How can a people destitute of the resources of commerce and industry bear up against so many imposts and abuses. At the conclusion of the war with Russia in 1776, the public debt amounted to 36,333,520 piastres, or about £3,628,350. It is now said to exceed £7,000,000. But in despotic governments, supposing the amount of pecuniary revenue and expenditure to be accurately ascertained—which is a contingency very remote from probability—it can afford no certain indication either of the resources or wants of the government. The taxes may be nominally small, but where power is unlimited, and either the personal labours or properties of the subject liable to constant requisition, it is in vain to estimate the amount of the burdens imposed upon the subject by the pecuniary receipts of the treasury. The sum collected in money, in such a case, forms always a very small proportion of the real contributions extorted from the people; and this must peculiarly take place in nations where, like Turkey, human beings themselves are the objects of traffic, alike for the purposes of war, of servitude, and of lust. All despotic governments indeed are able to call into action immense armies, and maintain them by forced contributions, but this affords no intrinsic proof either of wealth, power, or economy, on the part of the government, however small may be the disbursements in money.

Army.] Mr Eton calculated the Turkish army at 207,400 infantry of all descriptions, and 181,000 cavalry: making a total of 368,400 men, of whom 206,000 were employed as guards and in garrisons. It has for some time been the fashion to underrate the military strength of the Ottomans; but such depreciatory statements generally issue from the partisans of Greece and Russia, and are, therefore, to be received with caution. Before the breaking out of the present contest, it was confidently asserted, that, after leaving sufficient garrisons in Syria, Asia Minor, and the capital, the Sultan would not have a disposable force of 30,000 men to oppose the Russians, although by the above statement it will be seen that Mr Eton estimated the disposable force of Turkey in more pacific times at upwards of 186,000 men. Recent events justify us we think in estimating the Turkish army at upwards of 300,000 men. Servia, Bosnia, Albania, and most of the pashaliks, have contributed large contingents to the military force during the present struggle; and the pasha of Egypt maintains at least 50,000 men. The greatest efforts have been made by the present sultan to introduce European discipline among his troops. This reform was contemplated by the last Selim, but he fell a victim to his enterprise, after having organised a body of *topchis* or cannoneers. When Amurath I. had made a successful irruption into the provinces on the Danube, he was advised to incorporate a body of his youthful captives into his army, instead of looking for new recruits to the original seat of his tribe. "The advice was followed,"—says Mr Gibbon, "the edict was proclaimed,—and many thousands of the European captives were educated in religion and in arms, and the new militia was consecrated and named by a celebrated dervish." Standing in the front of the ranks, he stretched the sleeve of his gown over the head of the foremost soldier, and his blessing was delivered in these words:—'Let them be called *Jenitcheri* ('New Soldiers'); may their countenance be ever bright, their hands victorious,

their swords keen; may their spears always hang over the heads of their enemies; and wheresoever they go, may they return with a white face.' "Such," adds he, "was the origin of these haughty troops, the terror of the nations and sometimes of the sultans themselves." For two hundred years, namely, from the end of the 14th to that of the 16th century, the force thus obtained, by incorporating in the Mussulman army the fifth of Christian captive youth and the tenth of the youths of the conquered villages with the slaves of the sultan, composed the flower of the Turkish armies, and, so long as the first sultans ruled the nations from the hearts of the camps and declared their decrees from the 'imperial stirrup,' their obedience was secured, and there never was a fitter instrument of war and conquest. When the sovereigns of Europe had as yet no standing armies inured to discipline and possessed of experience,—when there was no concert among the powers,—and when, consequently, they could carry on no great combined operations,—the force of a body of troops, like the janissaries, who added the discipline and experience of veterans to the obedience of favoured slaves and the burning enthusiasm of new converts, was irresistible. In this period, accordingly, all the great successes of the Turkish army were gained; but, when the sultans began to prefer the pleasures of indolence to the visions of ambition, and exchanged the toils of the camp for the debaucheries of the harem, the discipline of the corps relaxed and its arms became more dangerous to the ministers than to the enemies of the government. A great variety of attempts were accordingly made to suppress it, and in these attempts both sultans, grand viziers, and inferior ministers have been deposed or massacred. The present sultan, however, acting with more caution as well as energy, has contrived to annihilate in one massacre this formidable body of warriors. The number destroyed is variously reported. All the officers, with the exception of a few of high rank who had joined the sultan's party, were known to have perished; and the general opinion is, that 20,000 were sacrificed on the occasion. *

The present sultan has succeeded, in the attempt in which all his predecessors failed, to introduce European discipline into his army. Previous to this reform the most accurate notion which could be formed of a Turkish imperial army of provincial contingent troops might have been obtained by comparing them with those bands of armed pilgrims, who, in days of yore, traversed Europe from various countries to St Jago of Compostella, or our Lady of the Pillar in Saragossa, or the holy house of Loretto, regulating and animating their march by hymns and litanies,—their devotions uninterrupted; excepting when some traveller was to be stript, or some village to be plundered and burnt. But instead of long trains of peregrinators, adorned with crosses and cockle-shells, the Ottoman army exhibited dervishes arrayed in party-coloured caps and garments, and mounted as a mark of humility on asses, marching at the head of tumultuary columns, flourishing the flags of the prophet, and vociferating prayers and imprecations with all their might. Behind these came the *Delhis*, or select horsemen, who scoured and plundered the country on every side. Then followed the *Timariotes*, or national cavalry, mounted on horses or mules, furnished with pack saddles, and ropes for stirrups. Last advanced the infantry, once the glory of an Ottoman army. Armed with guns without bayonets, and enormous horse-pistols and massy daggers, they pressed forward in confused crowds, raising clouds of dust like so many flocks of sheep hurried on by the shepherds. Behind this infantry came the ar-

tillery, their guns dragged along by buffaloes, or by Christian slaves. The rear of this strange association of barbarians of various countries, languages, and habits of life,—some shouting and singing aloud, others firing off their pieces loaded with ball into the air,—was closed by the commanders of different ranks, superbly apparelled, and surrounded by multitudes of insolent attendants and servants. When the army halted for the night, the attendants were employed to set up tents for the commanders, and bazars or markets were opened in various parts of the camp. The seraskier or commander proceeded to hold his court; the great men gave and received visits of ceremony; but all this time no out-post, not even a sentinel, was appointed,—every one lay down to rest under the protection of that fatality in which the essence of Mussulmanism consists. This total disorganization no longer exists in the Turkish regular army. In the early part of the present struggle with Russia, the regular soldiers exhibited all the valour and discipline of European troops, and even the contingent levies fought with considerable skill as well as order.

Navy.] The Turkish navy consists of a number of small vessels of war and several ships of the line. Before the battle of Navarino it was estimated at 21 sail of the line, 31 frigates, 8 corvettos, and 30 gun-boats, carrying altogether 2,990 cannon, and 5,300 seamen. It is commanded by a *Capitan-Pasha* or High Admiral, who is also superintendent-general of the marine. The *Tersana-emini* or director of the marine has the charge of the equipments and arsenals. The *Galiondjis* or sailors are an undisciplined body of men and very inexpert in the management of their vessels.

Commerce.] No country possesses greater physical advantages for carrying on an extensive commerce than European Turkey, and few countries have ever employed them to less beneficial purposes. Rich in native productions, and bordering upon three continents, Turkey might enjoy a trade with the whole world, were the industry of its inhabitants and the spirit of its merchants at all commensurate with their natural advantages. But under a despotic government commerce languishes, and manufactures decline. The internal trade of Turkey is chiefly in the hands of Armenians, Greeks, and Jews; and the intercourse betwixt the different provinces is checked by the want of union betwixt the different component parts of the population, the absence of good roads and regular posts, the rapacity of the pashas, and the high rate of interest paid for money. Jewish Armenians, and Greek brokers, also transact all business with the foreign market. The principal articles of exportation are: cotton, silk, tobacco, currants, raisins, wine, horses, cattle, skins, fur, and cotton yarn. Those of importation are: cotton-cloth, coffee, sugar, spices, glass, hardware, jewellery, paper, and slaves from Georgia, the Caucasus, and Africa. The principal commerce is with Austria and the Asiatic provinces. Our trade with Turkey affords a gross return of about £2,000,000 per annum.

The details falling under the head of this chapter, but applicable to the present position of affairs in Greece, will best be given while treating exclusively of Greece Proper.

CHAP. V.—GENERAL TOPOGRAPHY.—PRINCIPALITY OF MOLDAVIA OR BOGDAN.

We have already stated our reasons for not adhering to the Turkish political divisions of the empire, in our geographical sketch. We shall now

proceed to the topographical details of our plan under the following well known and generally recognised divisions:

I. The Principality of Moldavia.
II. The Principality of Wallachia.
III. Bulgaria.
IV. Servia, to which we must add the sandshak of Krucnovatz or Aladja-Hissar.
V. The Ejalet Bosnia, comprehending Turkish Croatia and Bosnia Proper, with the sandshak of Novi-Bazar or Jeni-Bazar.
VI. Albania.
VII. Romelia, comprehending Thrace and Macedonia.
VIII. Greece Proper, comprehending Thessaly, Livadia, and the Morea.
IX. The Islands of the Archipelago.
X. The Ejalet Kerid or island of Crete or Candia.

PRINCIPALITY OF MOLDAVIA.

Introductory Remarks.] The Porte exercises a kind of sovereignty over the two districts of Moldavia and Wallachia. The ultimate fate of these countries will in all probability be much affected by the present war, the greater part being now occupied by the Russians. The two principalities are situated between the Carpathian mountains, and the Danube and Pruth, and formed in ancient times the country of *Dacia Transalpina.* The territory of Budshak, and Eastern Moldavia extending between the Pruth and Dniester, and the Bukowine, also belonged to Dacia; but the two former are now Russian provinces, and the latter belongs to the Austrians. The Turkish part of Moldavia, and Wallachia, extends to about 42,631 English square miles. We shall describe these provinces separately.

Extent and Boundaries.] The principality of Moldavia, a part of *Dacia Transalpina,* received its present name, in the 14th century, from the river Moldava. The Turkish name of this territory is Bogdan,—a term which was in use when the Kumanes possessed this country. It is the most northern province of the Ottoman empire; on the N. and E. it is separated from Russia by the Pruth; on the S.E. the Danube forms the boundary; on the S. it is bounded by Wallachia; on the S.W. by Transylvania; and on the N.W. by Gallicia. Stein estimates the superficial extent of this territory at 18,068 English square miles; Hassel and Balbi at 17,400 square miles.

Physical Features.] The Carpathians cover the eastern parts of this country and separate it from Transylvania. These heights gradually decline towards the Sereth and the Pruth, and at last sink into gentle undulations, finely clothed with vines, and presenting rich and varied scenery. On the limits, the mountains are wild and rugged, and inhabited by bears, wolves, lynxes, and eagles. A high ridge of slate rock, called Pietra and Ross, runs on the boundaries of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Transylvania. The Danube bounds Moldavia only for a short space; but is valuable as opening a communication with Austria and the Black Sea. It receives the Pruth and the Sereth, the former of which rivers is navigable. The smaller tributary rivers are the Suczava, the Moldava, and the Bestritza. The principal lakes are those of Dorshœ and Bratersh.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.] The Moldavian winters are long, and usually more severe than might be expected in such a latitude. The

Danube is often covered with ice of an enormous thickness, and the deepest wells are sometimes frozen. It would appear that the wind blowing from the N.E. over an open flat country increases the cold. The summers are very warm. June is a rainy month; in July and August the heat is oppressive during the day, but the nights are chilly; the vintage is over in September, when the rain begins again; but October and November are comparatively mild months. Moldavia is occasionally visited with earthquakes, but they are never so violent as those which occur in Wallachia. The soil in the valleys is as rich as in Wallachia, and still more impregnated with salts and saltpetre; no less than 7,500 tons of salt are yearly taken from the pits at Okna. There are no mines wrought, although there are evident traces of gold, silver, lead, and iron, and coals exist in abundance. The agriculture of this country is inferior to that of Wallachia; but its rich soil yields excellent harvests. Wheat, barley, and millet are cultivated throughout the country. Fruit-trees are cultivated in whole forests, and the melon thrives well. A great quantity of wine is exported to Poland and Russia. The Odokescht is considered the best Moldavian wine; next to it is the Kotnar. Many districts are covered with rich pastures in which the luxuriant grass attains the length of 7 or 8 feet. The Moldavian horses are a superior breed, and usually bought for the Austrian and Prussian cavalry. Some boyars possess *hergelies* or studs of four or five hundred mares; they remain summer and winter in the open air, even where the soil is covered with snow. The oxen are exported to Silesia and Bohemia. There are about 2,000,000 of sheep, and 3,300,000 goats in this province. Fish are abundant and few countries are so well stocked with bees; some boyars are known to possess six or even twelve thousand bee hives, which are usually formed in the hollow trunk of a tree. Before the division of the province, the prince derived a revenue of 60,000 piastres from the tithe on honey and aromatic wax. Locusts occasionally commit great devastation; some districts are also infested with enormous swarms of lizards.

Inhabitants.] Mr Wilkinson estimated the population of Moldavia at 500,000 souls, which Hassel considers may have been the number of inhabitants in 1823, though count Karaiczai has calculated the population at only 367,000. The mass of this population, like the Wallachians, are descended from the Romans, Dacians, Mœsians, and Bulgarians, though they regard themselves as aborigines, and affect to consider the Wallachians as Hungarians. They are a fine-looking, tall and slender race; the women in particular are very beautiful and handsome. The prevailing vices of the male sex are drunkenness and idleness; while the mothers of families are often compelled to labour like slaves. Greeks, Armenians, Gypsies, Wallachians, settlers from Transylvania, Germans, and Poles, compose the remainder of the population.

Religion, Government, &c.] The Greek creed is the established religion of Moldavia. The head of the church here is the archbishop of Jassy. There are about 12,000 Catholics. None of the villages possess schools; but there is a college at Jassy. The government is the same as that of Wallachia. The waivode exercises despotic authority over the boyars, or lords. The revenue of the governor is nearly 2,000,000 of piastres. Mr Wolff says that the taxes and imposts annually amount to 2,400,000 piastres. The tribute exacted by the sultan was 1,000,000 piastres, or £33,333. The body-guard of the waivode used to amount to 400 men; and there was a militia force of 3,000 men.

Topography.] Moldavia is divided into two parts, namely: the Zara of Schoss or the Lower country,—and the Zara of Suss or the Upper country.

Zara of Schoss.] This Zara is subdivided into 9 districts.—At Hush on the Pruth excellent tobacco is grown.—Jassy or Jassi the capital, and residence of the waivode, is situated on the left bank of the Baklui, partly upon a rising ground, and partly in a valley rendered unhealthy by marshes. Its only defence is a small fortress. In 1822 it was nearly totally destroyed by a fire which consumed 4,700 houses. The archiepiscopal palace and metropolitan church of St Nicolas have survived the flames. Before the great fire Jassy contained 40,000 inhabitants; they do not now exceed 25,000. In the time of the Romans this city—then the *Jassiorium Municipium*—is said to have contained 80,000 souls. The fortifications were demolished in 1788.—Galacz or Galatz on the Danube is a brisk commercial town with a good harbour, a little below the confluence of the Sereth. It was the entrepot in the trade which the principalities conducted with Constantinople and Germany. Wilkinson estimated the population at 7,000 souls, a considerable proportion of whom are Greeks, Armenians, and Jews.

Zara of Suss.] Dorshoe, Bottuschani, and Okna, are the chief places in this Zara, but present nothing remarkable.

CHAP. VI.—PRINCIPALITY OF WALLACHIA.

Boundaries and Extent.] The name of Wallachia is derived from its inhabitants the *Vlaques* or *Wallachians*. The Turks call it *Eflake*. The Wallachians call it *Zara Rumanaska*, and themselves *Roumouni* or Romans. This province is bounded on the N. W. by the Austrian principality of Transylvania; on the N. E. by Moldavia; on the S. E. by the sandshak of Silistria; on the S. by the sandshak of Nicopoli; on the S. W. by the sandshak of Widin; and on the W. by the military frontiers of Hungary. Hassel and Balbi estimate the superficial extent at 25,231 square miles; Ritter at 25,310, and Sulzar at 29,767 square miles.

Physical Features and Climate.] Wallachia is surrounded on the W. and N.W. by high mountains, belonging to the Carpathian system, which separate the country from Austria. The advanced ridges of these heights extend into the country, on the W. side, as far as to the banks of the Danube; on the E. side they form a narrow ridge. The rest of the country is an extensive plain, through which large rivers descending from the Carpathian range flow slowly towards the Danube. This plain is diversified by some forests; but hardly broken by a single eminence. Thornton describes the beautiful appearance of both principalities in rapturous terms: the fertility of the soil,—the torrents rushing down the precipices and winding through the valleys,—the delightful fragrance of the lime-flower, and the herbs crushed by the browsing flocks,—the solitary huts of the shepherd on the brow of the mountains,—the mountains themselves rising far above the clouds with their snow-clad summits, and beneath adorned with lofty and majestic trees. There are five important passes between Wallachia and Transylvania. The Danube is the principal river; its main tributaries are the Schiul, the Aluta, the Ardschis, and the

Jalonitsa. There are no lakes of any considerable size, but numerous ponds and marshes. The climate is temperate, though not so mild as on the S. side of the Balkan; the Danube occasionally freezes here, but the winter seldom lasts above two months. During three months, the heat of summer is very great, and thunder-storms are frequent. Earthquakes sometimes occur; in 1802 the city of Bucharest was nearly destroyed by one. The nights are cold and attended with copious dews. In general the air is healthy; but in the mountains goitres occur. Bilious fevers and agues are common but not dangerous.

Soil and Productions.] The soil is productive in the valleys between the mountains; and of luxurious fertility in the plains. It is however very indifferently cultivated; the inhabitants generally preferring the life of herdsmen to the occupations of the agriculturist. Turkish corn is the grain most extensively cultivated; but a good deal of excellent wheat also is raised and exported. Melons form a principal article of food, and fruit is excellent and abundant. Wine might be extensively manufactured in this country if the people were industrious. There are very extensive forests, which are peopled with flocks of singing-birds, particularly nightingales. The pastures are fertile in aromatic plants, and support a great number of cattle. The Wallachian oxen are all white; the horses are spirited, swift, and strong. The Wallachian wool is excellent, the number of sheep in the country exceeds 3,000,000; Thornton says 4,000,000 inclusive of goats. There are three species of sheep fed in this country: the *zurkan* with long and coarse wool, the *zigey* with short and fine wool, and the Tartarian breed with enormous tails and a middling fleece. Game is abundant; but the bojars or lords of the soil—as in more civilized countries—reserve to themselves the exclusive privilege of hunting. Bees are kept in great quantities. There is no manufacturing industry. The common people make their own clothes and tools; the rich are supplied with articles of luxury from abroad.

Population, Religion, &c.] Mr Wilkinson, the English consul, estimated the total population of Wallachia at 1,000,000; several geographers have reckoned it at 900,000; and some at a still smaller number. We are inclined to think Mr Wilkinson's estimate nearest the truth; Stein in 1826 estimated the population of this principality at 950,000. The Wallachians are descendents of the ancient Romans, Dacians, Mœsians, and Bulgarians. They are an indolent and superstitious race of men; knowing no better amusement than to dance to the sound of the pipe under the shade of their woods. Their dress consists of a large loose shirt fastened by a belt, wide trowsers, a sheep-skin cloak, and sandals of untanned leather. The Greek portion of the population are wealthier and more active. Turks are not allowed to settle in this principality. The Gypsies amount to about 50,000. The Wallachians and Greeks generally belong to the Greek church; the head of which in this country is the archbishop of Bucharest. The Roman Catholics are under the bishop of Nicopolis. The clergy possess a third part of the landed property in the country; and the annual income of the archbishop was equal to 400,000 piastres. The abbeys and dioceses are exposed to sale, and the price is put into the coffers of the hospodar. The Wallachian is not the written language; the only books used are printed in Greek, and Greek is also taught in the schools. There are no country schools; the only seminaries of education are to be found in the towns, and such is the prevailing ignorance, that even Greek bishops are occasionally found who can neither read nor write. It is or very recently

was customary in this country to open the sepulchres of the dead every seven years, and if the body had not returned to its kindred dust, the relations judged that the soul which once animated it was in a state of condemnation, or that the deceased had become a vampire. The rich bojars either employ foreign tutors, or send their sons to Germany or Italy for their education. Marriages are easily dissolved in this country; a rich man can at any time repudiate his wife.

Government, Revenue, &c.] Wallachia and Moldavia were governed by the native princes, though under the authority of the Sublime Porte, until 1731, when the divan deposed the indigenous princes, and clothed the Fanariotes in their spoils. The divan did not deprive the natives of all influence in the government. Various posts were reserved for the native boyars: such as those of chief-justice, mayor, secretary-general of the districts and cantons. But the high situation of minister of the interior and for foreign affairs, of the police, the sheriffs, the military officers, and a multitude of other posts, were usually given to the Fanariotes in the suite of the hospodar, who from the moment of their appointment took the title of Boyar. The hospodar takes the title of Highness, and leaves Constantinople with all the honours of a pasha. A representative called the *Bâche-Capi-Kaihaya* is the medium of all correspondence between him and the grand-vizier. The dress of the hospodar does not differ from that of a noble Turk at Constantinople except in the head dress: in place of the turban, he wears a cylindrical cap in imitation of the khan of the Crimea. The prince and the Boyars are alike distinguished from their inferiors by the length of their beards; the latter are also easily discernible from a common inhabitant by the enormity of their *kalpacks*, or head-dress, which is composed of black lamb-skins in the form of a balloon. By the porte, the hospodar is allowed a very limited revenue arising from a tithe upon sheep, bees, &c. which are altogether valued at only £800 a year. In a very short time, however, he generally contrives to amass immense treasures. A hospodar seldom possesses his place more than two or three years, and it therefore becomes a matter of necessity with him to recover from his oppressed subjects, within the shortest time possible, the purchase money of his office, as well as the annual tribute to the porte. The hospodar has not the military force of the province at his disposal like the pashas; his divan or court is modelled after that of the Byzantine emperors. There is no written code of laws; sometimes indeed reference is made to the Basilian and Roman law; but the prince or hospodar is always supreme judge, and all legal proceedings are very summary. The native militia used to consist of about 6,000 men; they were occasionally reinforced by a body of Albanians. The revenue must be very great to supply the enormous drain occasioned by the rapacity of the hospodars, and the demands of the porte. The revenue nominally paid to Turkey used to be 600 purses or 300,000 piastres; but it very seldom fell short of 500,000 piastres. The inhabitants were likewise obliged to supply the Turkish capital every year with 8,000 horses, 28,000 sheep, and 187,500 quarters of wheat. The tributary peasants in 1817 paid 1,800,000 piastres, or £360,000. The Russian journals now represent the Wallachian boyars as insisting upon their country being completely separated from Turkish government; the new hospodar appointed by Russia has a revenue of 1,000,000 of piastres, and the revenues of the salt-works and produce of the customs are to be applied to the support of a standing army of 1200 men.

Topography.] Wallachia is divided into Wallachia Proper, comprising Upper and Lower Wallachia on the E. of the Aluta; and Little Wallachia, sometimes called the *Banat of Crayova*, on the W. of the same river.

Wallachia Proper.] Bucharest, the capital of this province, is situated in a vast marshy plain upon the banks of the Dombovitza, nigh 400 miles to the N.E. of Constantinople. It is the residence of the waivode, the archbishop, the European consuls, and the administrative authorities of the province. It is partly fortified, and is divided into 67 divisions. The streets are paved with wood, and the houses are mostly constructed of the same material. The new palace, and the hotels of the Austrian and Russian ambassadors are handsome structures. There are 60 Greek churches, 20 convents, one Roman Catholic church, one Lutheran church, a Greek lyceum with 12 professors, a public library, a scientific society, and a theatre in this city. The population has been variously estimated at from 60,000 to 100,000 souls. The languages spoken by the higher classes are modern Greek, bad Italian, and worse French. There is much of European luxury but little of European civilization in this city. Dancing and music are the favourite amusements of the common people.—Fokshani, or Foktchan, is situated on the right bank of the Milkov. It was once a considerable commercial town: but was burned by the Turks in September 1822; its present population may amount to 2000 souls.—In the neighbourhood of Waleni are the extensive salt-mines of Stanikul, which recently furnished 900,000 cwts. of that article annually.—The Transylvanian trade is chiefly conducted by way of Kimpina, a town on the Braowa.—Brahilow or Ibraila, situated on the Danube, near the mouth of the Sereth, is the capital of a district, and has a strong citadel. This city maintains a considerable traffic with Constantinople in corn and sturgeon-fish. It capitulated to the Russians in 1828, after a gallant defence.—Giurgevo, Djordjova, or Jerköki, politically belongs to the sandshak of Rudshuck. It is situated on the left bank of the Danube nearly opposite to Rudshuck, forming the *tete de pont* of that town. The citadel is situated on the island of Hobodyic. It contained 18,000 inhabitants in 1790.—Tergovisto, the ancient residence of the waivodes, is situated upon the Jalonitza; its population amounts to about 5,000 souls.

Little Wallachia.] This district was ceded to Austria in the peace of Passowitz; but given back to the Turks by the treaty of Belgrade in 1739. Crajova, the capital, is situated at a little distance from the left bank of the Schiul; it is a handsome bustling town, with about 8,000 inhabitants.

CHAP. VII.—BULGARIA.

Boundaries and Divisions.] Bulgaria is bounded on the N. by the Danube, which separates it from Wallachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia; on the E. by the Black Sea; on the S. by the Balkan, which separates it from Romelia; and on the W. by Servia. In the Turkish political distribution of the country this territory is comprised in the Ejalet Roumili, and is divided into the sandshaks of Silistria, Rudshuk, Widin, and Sophia.

History.] This country was known to the Romans under the name *Mœsia Inferior.* The people who conferred its present name upon it were an ancient Nomadic tribe of Slavonian origin, who in the 4th century were settled on the Volga, where the ruins of their former capital called Bol-

gar, still exist in the neighbourhood of Kasan. Removing into the territory between the Don and the Bog, they called their new acquisition the *Second Bulgaria* or *Voulgaria.* In 539 they passed the Danube and formed the kingdom of *Black Bulgaria,* extending along the coasts of the Black Sea as far as Mount Haemus. They next engaged in a series of sanguinary contests with the Lower Empire, which they filled with terror until their subjection by Basil II. in 1017. In the 13th century Stephen IV. king of Hungary conquered this country, and in the succeeding century it fell into the hands of the Turks.

Physical Features, &c.] Bulgaria is a marshy country, covered with extensive forests of beech, pine, and oak trees. The climate in the lower grounds admits of the cultivation of the vine, fruits, tobacco, and corn; the night-dews and damps occasionally produce agues.

Inhabitants.] The greater number of the Bulgarians are members of the Greek church. Their dialect differs little from that of the Servians. "The people," says Dr Walsh, "have now entirely laid aside the military character that once distinguished their ancestors. The great body of them are altogether pastoral, and live in small hamlets, forming clusters of houses which have neither the regularity, nor deserve the name of towns. Of all the peasantry I have ever met with, the Bulgarians seem the most simple, kind, and affectionate; forming a striking contrast with the rude and brutal Turks, who are mixed among them, but distinguished by the strongest traits of character. On the road we frequently met groups of both, always separate, but employed in the same avocations: the Turks were known by turbans, sashes, pistols, and yatigans, but still more, by a ferocity of aspect, a rude assumption of demeanour, and a careless kind of contempt, that at once repulsed and disgusted us. They never turned their buffaloes or arubas out of the way to let us pass, or showed the smallest wish to be civil or obliging; on the contrary, they were pleased if they pushed us into a bog in the narrow road, or entangled us among trees or bushes. Any accommodation in houses was out of the question; if we approached one for a drink of milk or water, we ran the hazard of being stabbed or shot. The Bulgarians were distinguished by caps of brown sheep-skin; jackets of cloth, made of the wool undyed of dark brown sheep, which their wives spin and weave; white cloth trowsers, and sandals of raw leather, drawn under the sole, and laced with thongs over the instep; and they carried neither pistol nor yatigan, nor any other weapon of offence; but they were still more distinguished by their countenance and demeanour. The first is open, artless, and benevolent; and the second is so kind and cordial, that every one we met seemed to welcome us as friends. Whenever their buffaloes or arubas stopped up the way, they were prompt to turn them aside; and whenever they saw us embarrassed, or obliged to get out of the road, they were eager to show us it was not their fault. Their houses were always open to us, and our presence was a kind of jubilee to the family; the compensation we gave scarcely deserved the name, and I am disposed to think, if not offered, would not be asked for. Turkish women we never saw; the Bulgarian women mixed freely with us in the domestic way, and treated us with the unsuspecting cordiality they would show to brothers."

Topography.—Sandshak of Silistria or Dristra.] This district extends from Mount Hæmus to the mouth of the Danube, which separates it on the W. and N. from Wallachia. The river is about 2 miles broad from Rouchetchouk or Rudshuk to Silistria. This part of the country is barren and

marshy, liable to frequent inundations, and chiefly inhabited by Turks. —Shumla or Choumla is situated on the direct road to the capital, where the two eastern passes of the Balkan diverge. Its population has been over-estimated we think at 60,000 souls. It has a deep ditch, with thick walls of mud and brick, extending three miles in one direction, and one in the other, and flanked with towers. General Kaminsky penetrated to it in 1810, and endeavoured to take it by assault, but was obliged to retire with great loss. The slaughter of the Russians was so immense that the Pasha, in his despatch, declared that he had Russian heads sufficient to form a bridge from Shumla to heaven. —Pravadi is situated to the N.E. of Shumla. It is a pleasant town with about 3,000 inhabitants.—Varna, with about 16,000 inhabitants, is a strong fortress on the coast of the Black Sea, forming the key of the eastern part of Bulgaria. It was taken by the Russians, aided by treachery, in 1828.—Kalakria, is a well-fortified place, commanding the Gulf of Torgof.—Mangali or Callatio, near the mouth of the Anghadi, is called by the Turks Tomiswen, and is generally considered to be the identical Tomi in which the unfortunate Ovid was doomed to spend the remainder of his days among a horde of barbarians. Kara-Querman is a strongly fortified town on the Black Sea.—Hirsova, the ancient *Axioripolis*, is a well-fortified town on the Danube.—Matchin is a very strong fortress.—Issaktcha commands the confluence of the Pruth.—Toultcha, 5 leagues to the E. of the latter place, and within sight of Ismail, in a strongly fortified place, but commanded by some heights towards the S.—Silistra or Silistria, containing about 24,000 inhabitants, is a very strong fortress, situated upon a small eminence on the right bank of the Danube. The town presents the form of a semicircle or arc, of which the bank of the Danube forms the cord. In the middle of this cord is an old castle, encircled by a strong wall, and flanked by four towers, as well as a trench on the side of the town, which is also furnished with towers, but of a less size. The side of the castle towards the river is covered by a very deep moat entirely lined with stones. The efficacy of the defence of the castle is confined to the defence of the upper part of the town. The side towards the river is every where flanked by four large redoubts. On the side towards the land are six redoubts communicating with each other by curtains; there is also the additional defence of *chevaux-de-frise*. The fault of this fortification is, that the curtains are not in flank, but in front, so that the moats have no protection, and the assailants are covered from the fire; besides, on this side the moat is not invested, but merely the redoubts. In front of this town, on the bank of the Danube, at 30 or 40 paces from the moat, is a stone building which serves as a magazine for the purposes of navigation upon the river. On the west, where are the wells which are called by the name of Petit-Mustapha, and the places of burial, all the country is under the fire of the fortress. On the opposite part, where vines and gardens extend from the foot of the surrounding mountains to the side of the moat, the approach is commanded at more than one point. The parapet consists only of a line of gabions, in time of peace very much neglected as well as the moat, and the other works are destitute of trenches, so that not long ago one might enter the town without passing through the gates, not only on horseback, but even in a carriage. Silistria surrendered to the Russians in 1829.—Rassova is a strongly fortified town 8 leagues N.E. from Silistria. About a league to the N.E. of this place are the remains of a wall built by the emperor Trajan as a protection against the incursions of the barbarian

hordes, and extending from the Danube to Chistendje the ancient *Constantiana* on the Euxine.

The Sandshak of Nicopoli or Rudshuck.] This district runs almost parallel with the Danube, between that river and the northern lines of the Hæmus. On the banks of the river it is well peopled; towards the mountains the country becomes extremely wild and deserted. The four rivers Vid, Osma, Jantra, and Lom, descending from the Balkan chain, divide the country into four parts. The principal export is wood, and there is a peculiar breed of horses reared here, known in Turkey by the name of the Deli-Ormani breed.—Tortukai, a village on the Danube, is poorly fortified. Its inhabitants are all Bulgarians.—Razgrad is a brisk little town at the point of junction of the four great roads which lead to Silistria, Rudshuk, Ternovo, and Shumla.—Rudshuk is a well fortified town, and a place of considerable trade; it contains about 30,000 inhabitants.—At Eski-Djuma, 3 leagues W. of Shumla, the most important fair in all Bulgaria used to be held.—Tournovo or Ternova, anciently the capital of Bulgaria, is now a town of only 10,000 inhabitants. It is built upon the Iantra or Jatrus nearly in the centre of Bulgaria. The environs are very agreeable.—Nicopolis, opposite the mouth of the Aluta, which separates Little Wallachia from Upper Wallachia, is a fortified town with about 20,000 inhabitants. A great deal of wine is made in the neighbourhood.—Sistove is a commercial town 10 leagues to the E. of Nicopolis.

The Sandshak of Widin.] This small district extends between the Isker and the Timok or Timacus, forming part of Upper Mœsia. Its western parts are mountainous; its eastern woody. The soil is fertile, but this country has so often been made the theatre of war that it is little cultivated. The fortress of Widin is admirably constructed, and has never yet been taken either by the Austrians or Russians. Paswan-Oglou-Osman has rendered this place remarkable by the resistance which he here made to Selim III. The ships which navigate the Black Sea cannot ascend the Danube beyond this point.—Rahova, at the distance of 20 leagues from Widin, is protected by a small fort.—Lomgrade is a fortified position betwixt these two places.

The Sandshak of Sophia.] The chain of the Hæmus cuts this large district into two equal parts. It is very populous, and seems to be the basin of some ancient lake. The town of Sophia was founded by Justinian in the beautiful region of the Upper Isker, of which it occupies the centre. Its population may amount to 50,000 souls.—Twelve leagues to the S.E. of Sophia is the fortified town of Samakove, situated under the western ridge of Mount Scardus near the sources of the Isker; it protects the great pass formed by the union of this chain with Mount Dupindcha or Scomius.—Isladi, a town on the banks of the Vid is exempted from all tribute to the Turkish government, except that of annually furnishing a certain number of individuals for the carrier service.—The small town of Ehliman belongs to the Kizlar-aga or chief of the eunuchs.

CHAP. VIII.—SERVIA.

Former Extent.] Servia, which bears the title of a kingdom, and which embraces almost the whole of Upper Mœsia, was in ancient times of much larger extent than it is at present. Sclavonia and Syrmia on the N.W., a part of Bosnia extending to the river Bosnia on the W., and the ancient Dardania on the S., were all comprehended within the limits of this king-

dom. But since the Turkish government was compelled to purchase its treaties of peace by successive dismemberments of country, the two former districts have fallen into the hands of Austria, and the boundary-line on the N. is determined by the river Save.

History.] During the long struggle betwixt the Austrians and Turks for Hungary, the Servians vigorously supported the former, with a fine body of troops to which the Germans gave the name of *Rascians*. The treaty of Belgrade concluded in 1739 yielded Servia to the Porte; but a considerable part of the population crossed the Danube and Save, and settled in Sclavonia and Temiswar; those who remained behind continued liable to many oppressions, and particularly from the janissaries, who were usually rewarded at the conclusion of a war with possessions in this country These vexations at last compelled the Servians to raise the standard of revolt in 1800, under the command of Czerni-Georges, who was assisted in his enterprise by the revolt of Osman-Pasha, known also by the name of Paswan-Oglou. Czerni-Georges expelled or massacred all the *jamaks* or Turkish settlers, and garrisoned the fortified places with native troops. Encouraged by Russian agents, and supported with money by Ypsilanti, then hospodar of Wallachia, the Servians maintained the struggle with advantage, and in 1807 Russian troops were admitted into the country, who enabled the Servians to offer effectual resistance to their Turkish oppressors. When the treaty of Bucharest was negotiated in 1812, the cabinet of St Petersburgh stipulated for the introduction of certain clauses on behalf of its Servian allies; Turkey offered to place Servia on the same footing as the two principalities; but the Servians resisted these terms, and Russia, now attacked by France, was compelled to leave its allies to their fate. A fierce struggle again commenced, in which the Turks were victorious; but the Servians obtained several important privileges; their national senate secured the power of regulating the administration of justice, and they preserved their own laws.

Boundaries.] Servia, including the sandshak of Kruchevatz, extends between 42° 21′, and 45° N. Lat. It is bounded on the N. by Hungary and Sclavonia; on the E. by Wallachia and Bulgaria; on the S.E. by Romelia; on the S.W. by Albania, and on the W. by Bosnia.

Physical Features.] Servia is the most mountainous country of European Turkey, which renders its defence against invasions very easy. The mountains in the middle of the province, the Czemerno, Scheliana, and Kopauneg form an elevated group. Two large plains meet near Kruchevatz, the one extending in an easterly direction to Nissa, the other westwards to Ussitza. The first is watered by the Eastern Morava, the other by the Western. Part of the chain which runs across the country to the S.W. of the Timok, derives its name from the *haidyucks*, a banditti who perhaps still inhabit its recesses.

Productions.] The country is in many places covered with vast forests of pines and oaks, inhabited by lynxes and wolves. Vineyards descend from the wooded heights to the low grounds. Wheat, maize, and millet are grown, and tobacco, lint, and hemp are raised and exported.

Inhabitants.] The Servians, like the Bosniaks, are the descendants of the ancient Sclavonians. They were originally governed by native princes, but during the strife betwixt the Greeks of the Lower Empire, and the kings of Hungary, Austria and Turkey assumed the government of this country. The Servians, however, still retain the manners and language of their ancestors; they are a majestic and high-spirited race of men, and

Malte Brun remarks of their dialect, that it is perhaps the purest and most harmonious of any connected with the Slavonic. They belong to the Greek church, and are supposed to amount to 800,000.

Topography.] Servia Proper is not divided into sandshaks, but into cantons or districts, which derive their names from their principal towns.

Servia Proper.] Semendria or *Sent-Andriya,* literally Saint Andrews, the capital, is a strongly fortified city, situated on the right bank of the Danube, at the confluence of the Nissava, about 6 leagues S. E. from Belgrade. The city of Belgrade or *Biyagrod,* is famous in the military annals of Europe. It is situated on the southern bank of the Danube, and is regarded as the key of Servia on the north. The citadel, which is situated upon a rock rising in the centre of the city, commands the Danube, and the town is surrounded with walls and ditches. The suburbs extend to the Save, and are also protected by fortifications. A little below the city are three small islands on the Danube which form a safe harbour; and in the mouth of the Save, immediately opposite the suburbs, is the small island of Zingaria. The population of Belgrade amounts to 30,000 souls, amongst whom are 6,000 Turks who form the garrison, the rest are Turks, Servians, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews. Belgrade is the principal mart between Germany and Hungary on the one side, and Constantinople and Salonica on the other. It is 200 miles S.S.E. of Buda, and 240 W. of Bucharest. This city bore the name of *Singidunum* in the time of the Romans; it made a part of the Eastern empire. The Visigoths, Goths, and Huns successively occupied it; and in 1522, while occupied by the troops of Charles V. it was taken by Solyman. The Imperialists re-took it in 1688, and again lost it in 1690. In 1717, Prince Eugene annihilated a Turkish army under the walls of Belgrade, and gained possession of the city; but in 1739, the Imperialists yielded it up to the Turks. In 1789 it was taken by Marshal Laudhon, who kept possession of it till 1791. In 1807 the Servians seized it, and in 1813 they destroyed its fortifications and suburbs; but it has since been re-fortified by the Turks.—Passarovitch is a small town situated between the Morava and Mava, on the high road to Belgrade.—Fœtih-Islam is a fortified town on the Danube. From this point the northern banks of the river present only immense plains. At a little distance to the N.W. are the ruins of a bridge supposed to be that which Trajan constructed in his expedition against Decebalus king of the Dacians.—Ussitza is a large town engrossing almost the whole commerce of Servia, with the western provinces and Bosnia. It is situated on Mount Hatibor, which is here traversed by four routes communicating between Novi-Bazar, Aladja-Hissar, and Bosnia.

Sandshak of Krucheratz.] This division, except where it forms the basin of the Jasterbacz, is almost a desert. It comprehends a part of the ancient Dardanium. A fine breed of horses is reared at Rousnik in this district. Kruchevatz, the capital, is situated in the vale of the Jasterbacz, and has a fine castle, the former residence of the Servian kings.—Nissa, the birth-place of Constantine the Great, is a fortified town of considerable importance; but its ancient splendour is gone.

CHAP. IX.—THE EJALET BOSNA, OR COUNTRY OF BOSNIA.

Extent and Boundaries.] Bosnia takes its name from the Bosna, one of its principal streams. It forms the most western part of European

Turkey, and its boundaries on three sides are those of the empire itself: the Save from its confluence with the Drin to its confluence with the Unna, separating it from Sclavonia on the N.; the Unna in the latter part of its course dividing it on the same side from Croatia, by which country it is also bounded on the W.; the chain of Prolegh, a branch of the Dinaric mountains, dividing it in part from Dalmatia on the S.W.; and the chain of Piessiori, another branch of the Dinaric system, dividing it from the territory of the Montenegrins, and sandshak of Scutari. On the east this country is separated from Servia by the course of the Ibar from its confluence with the Sjdnitza to its junction with the eastern Morava, the mountains of Bronsnik, Slatibor, and Stolatz, and the course of the Drin to its junction with the Save. Its superficial extent is estimated by Balbi and Hassel at 22,831 English square miles, and by the editors of the *Dictionnaire Geographique* at 3000 square leagues.

History.] The ancients divided this country into two regions: the southern part, which is almost wholly occupied by the Dalmatian mountains, they called *Upper* or *Higher Bosnia*,—and the northern part they called *Lower Bosnia*. The name of *Pannonia Inferior* was also extended to part of this country. In the middle ages the governors of Bosnia were vassals or bannat allies of the Hungarian emperors. Its prince Twark assumed the royal title in 1376, but continued a vassal of Hungary. King Stephen, its last monarch, was dethroned and slain by Mahommed; and in 1463 and 1480 this country was incorporated with the Turkish empire.

Physical Features.] Bosnia is a mountainous region. The Dinaric chain enters the country near the source of the Unna at mount Sabor, and runs from N.W. to S.E. almost parallel to the coasts of the Adriatic, forming the high land betwixt those rivers which flow north towards the Save, and those which flow south towards the Adriatic. The principal streams which take their rise in these heights are the Unna, the Sanna, the Verlitza, the Bosna, the Drin, and the Western Morava, all on the north side; the Narenta is the only considerable river which flows southwards. Between the Prologh ridge and the main chain, the plain of Livno extends, and several streams having no apparent outlet occur here. The southern ramifications of the Dinaric chain present a bare and bleak aspect; the surface mould has been washed away by the impetuous torrents, and the scanty vegetation is scorched by a burning sun in summer.

Climate and Productions.] The climate of Bosnia is modified by the degree of elevation of the different districts. The winter commences early, and in the highlands the country is covered with snow to the depth of several feet during six months in the year. The air is salubrious, and the marshes are almost exclusively confined to the vicinity of the Save. The forests and pasturages occupy the larger portion of the surface; only the richest valleys or hills are cultivated. Napoleon employed men in cutting a road by which his legions might penetrate into Illyria, and the oaks of Bosnia he transported to the harbours on the Adriatic. The rich pastures support numerous herds of oxen, and flocks of fine-fleeced sheep; but the Bosnian generally prefers the toils of the chase to the life of the herdsman. The cereales are chiefly cultivated on the banks of the Save; the grains raised are wheat, maize, and barley; the surplus is exported to the Austrian states. Fruits are abundant and delicious. The grape seldom arrives at maturity in the highlands; but it ripens on the Drina, and a substitute for wine is manufactured from plums. Excellent honey is

produced in the district between the Verbitza and Unna; the adder is the only noxious reptile known in Bosnia. Iron is the only mineral which the jealousy of the Turks allows to be wrought in this country; but rich gold and silver-mines were wrought in this country in ancient times, and mineral springs are abundant.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The preparation of hides, and the fabrication of coarse woollens, one foundery, one saltpetre manufactory. some powder-mills, and the manufacture of fire-arms employ all the industrious population of Bosnia. These articles, wool, goats' hair, honey, dried fish, wood, and cattle form the articles of export. Dalmatia furnishes this country in return with salt, oil, dried fruits, and bullion. Constantinople supplies it with colonial produce, linen, silks, hardware, lead, paper, and glass. The principal trading towns are Bosna-Serai, Novi-Bazar, Zivornik, Banjaluka, Mostar, and Gradiska. The principal rivers are navigable; but the roads are wretched.

Population and Religion.] The population of Bosnia is about 820,000 souls; of whom 470,000 are Mussulmen, 190,000 Greeks, 150,000 Catholics, 2,000 Jews, and the rest Zingari or Gypsies. The Bosnian Mussulmen are fierce, fanatic, and intolerant, but unsullied by the effeminate vices of their Turkish brethren. A stupid superstition, but the same austerity of manners, characterizes the Bosnian Catholics, who generally farm the lands of the Turks. They are under the jurisdiction of a bishop, and have some churches and a few convents. The Greeks have a church at Bosna-Serai, a bishop and several convents in the Herzegovine. The Jews enjoy considerable toleration, and are all engaged in trade. The Zingari lead a wandering life in tents. They do not profess any religion, and are only restrained from all excess by dread of punishment. The Bosnian language is a dialect of the Servian: Turkish is spoken by the inhabitants of Turkish descent, and some dialects of the Slavonian are in use. Polygamy is almost unknown.

Government, &c.] Bosnia is one of the most important pashalics of the Ottoman empire. Its pasha seldom retains his situation above three years, for the whole province is almost independent of the porte. Bosna-serai is the capital, and Trawnik is the residence of the pasha. The revenues of this pashalic amount to five or six millions of piastres. The pasha's standing force amounts to 4,000 men; but it is thought that 80,000 troops might be raised in this country; 30,000 of whom would be sufficient to garrison the fortified places, while the rest could easily defend a country admirably protected by natural barriers.

Topography.] The country is divided into 6 sandshaks.

1*st. The Sandshak of Trawnik.*] Bosna-Serai, the capital of Bosnia, is situated in this district upon a tributary of the Bosna. Its fortifications, which resisted the attacks of prince Eugene, are now in a ruinous state. Its citadel is situated upon a rising ground to the E. of the town. The environs are mountainous. The population is about 60,000, of whom two-thirds are Turks. Its principal manufactures are fire-arms, leather, and morocco. It forms the central point of commercial intercourse betwixt Turkey and Dalmatia, Croatia, and the south of Germany. Trawnik is situated under the southern ridge of Vladick. Its population has been estimated at 12,000 souls.

2*d. The Sandshak of Banjaluka.*] The town of Banjaluka, or Bagnialouka, is defended by a castle situated upon the Verbitza.—The popu-

lous town of Gradiska is divided into two parts by the Save; the Austrians have possession of that portion of the town which is situated upon their side of the river.

3*d. The Sandshak of Srebernik.*] This district occupies the centre of the country. Its principal town is Srebernik or Srebreik.—In the neighbourhood of Touzla some salt-mines are wrought.—Brod is a fortified position on the Save; the principal part of the town is on the Austrian side of the river, and in their possession.

4*th. The Sandshak of Isvornik or Zwornik.*] This sandshak occupies the N.E. part of Bosnia. Zwornik, on the Drin, is nearly as large as Bosna-serai, but does not contain a fourth part so many inhabitants. The Romans wrought silver-mines in the vicinity, and called this town *Argentina.* The fortifications are in good condition. The fortress of Bogardlen or Shabacz, on the Save, is considered one of the strongest places in the province.

5*th. The Sandshak of Novibazar or Jenibasar.*] This district comprehends the country of the Rascians. It is bounded on the N. by Servia; on the E. by the sandshak of Aladja-Hissar; on the S. by Albania; and on the W. by the Drin. Novibazar, upon the Bachka, has a population of about 8,000 souls.

6*th. The Sandshak of Herzegovina.*] Trebigne, on the Trebinitza, the ancient capital of the province of *Tribunia*, is the principal place in this sandshak. Hassel says it contains 10,000 inhabitants; but other geographers represent it as only a small village.—Mostar is a picturesquely situated town, to the W. of the lake Blato, and contains 12,000 inhabitants. There is here a fine ancient marble bridge of 8 arches.

CHAP. X.—ALBANIA.

Boundaries and Extent.] Albania, called in Turkish *Arnautlic*, and in the language of the natives *Skyperi*, comprehends the ancient countries of Epirus and Illyria, and extends along the coasts of the Adriatic opposite to Italy. The White Drino separates it from Bosnia on the N., and from Servia on the N.E.; on the E. it is bounded by Romelia; on the S. by Livadia and the gulf of Arta; and on the W. by the river Zem and the Ionian and Adriatic seas. Though the theatre of incessant revolutions, and peopled by various tribes, and everywhere offering a rich field of inquiry to the geologist and naturalist, we know less of this region than of any other in Europe. Its length is about 270 miles; and its breadth from 40 to 100 miles.

History and Inhabitants.] Much learned research has been bestowed in inquiring into the origin of the Albanians. According to Adelung they are the descendants of an Asiatic tribe who dwelt between the Caucasus and the Caspian sea; according to Thunmann they are the successors of the ancient Illyrians. Until the middle of the last century Albania was divided into several independent pashaliks. The late Pasha of Joannina, commonly called Ali Pasha, by a series of successful usurpations, contrived to subject the whole of Albania to his sway, and extended his dominions into Macedonia and the frontiers of Attica. He indeed remitted an annual tribute to Constantinople, but his court was nearly independent of the Porte; and England, France, and Russia, generally maintained agents at it. His army was said to amount to 30,000 men. Ali afforded complete

toleration to all religious sects, although the only two religions publicly acknowledged were Mahomedanism and that of the Greek church. In 1820 the porte by a vigorous effort re-established its authority over Albania, and put Ali to death. The Albanian or Skipytaric is not a written language.

Albanian Mountains.] Several of the Albanian mountains, as those which border on both sides the populous vale of Deropuli, watered by the Celydnus, are estimated at 4,000 feet high; and those of Suli at 3,000 feet above their immediate bases. The whole of Epirus or Lower Albania is covered with calcareous mountains furrowed by ravines; but we have no information regarding the country to the N. of the Aous.

Acroceraunian Mountains.] The Acroceraunian mountains are estimated by Mr Dodwell at 4,000 feet above the level of the sea, whose shores they line with their precipitous cliffs; and do not, as Rollin by mistake affirms, separate Epirus from Thessaly and Macedonia. This term was probably given to the highest summits which rise nearly above the ancient city of *Aulona*, the modern Valona; and the general appellation of *Ceraunia* or *Ceraunii*, was applicable to the whole range extending along the coast, from nearly opposite Corcyra or Corfu, to Dyracchium or Durazzo. Dion Cassius calls them Ακρατα Κεραυνια, or the Citadels of Thunder. They are now called the mountains of *Chimara*, a name probably derived from Chimæra, which, according to Pliny, was a castle on the Acroceraunian mountains above the fountain of *Aquæ Regiæ*. Procopius asserts, that the fortress of Ximara was erected by Justinian, but it was only probably repaired or rebuilt. The Adriatic sea or gulf of Venice, being bounded by the Appenines on the west, and the Acroceraunian mountains on the east, is much subjected to storms; and shipwrecks were formerly so frequent, as to render its navigation an object of dread to the Greek and Roman navigators.

> "Quem mortis timuit gradum,
> Qui vidit mare turgidum et
> Infames scopulos Acroceraunia?"

It is easy to preceive how this coast, and the abrupt and serrated outline of the Acroceraunian mountains—the first seen by those coming from Italy—should have been rendered so formidable, by its bold and precipitous front to the W, and the gusts of wind sweeping down from these lofty eminences. Says Dodwell, "The Acroceraunian mountains became visible. We had no sooner approached those *infames scopulos*, the residence of Thundering Jove, than we were overtaken by the most dreadful storm I had ever experienced. The night was unusually black; but at intervals the lightning streamed across the heavens, and set the firmament in a blaze. The brightest sunshine could not have cast a more vivid glare over the Acroceraunian crags. The tempest continued with short intervals for the greater part of two nights and a day. On the 26th, we coasted within three miles of the Acroceraunians, which rise in fine pointed forms, apparently at least 4,000 feet high, bare and barren, except towards their bases, which are covered with wood. Among the many terrific tales which our sailors recounted concerning these fatal rocks, there was one circumstance on which they laid particular stress, and of which they would not allow us to doubt the certainty—namely, that loud voices were always heard upon the rocks at midnight; and that a short time before storms and sirocco winds, lights are seen dancing about upon the crags. The probability of this story is greater than it would appear at first sight. The

captain and all the sailors declared with one voice, that they had frequently seen these lights, which are probably formed by the gas of carburetted ignited hydrogen, similar to that of Pietra Mala on the Bolognese Appenines."[5]

Rivers and Lakes.] The principal rivers are the Black Drino, the Somini or *Panysus*, the Semno, the *Aous*, and the *Apsus* or Kabroni. The Cocytus and Acheron are recognized by Dr Holland in the stream of Zagouri, and the river of Suli. The latter river rises by different streams in the country to the W. of Cinque Pozzi on the road from Arta to Joannina. After running for some distance a S.W. course, it suddenly bends towards the N. and enters by a narrow pass the wild and magnificent region of Suli. From thence the scenery as far as the castle of Suli, is the most wild, rugged, dark, and dreary, that can be imagined: the pass is so contracted at its entrance by opposing cliffs, to the height of several hundred feet above the stream, that access is impossible, otherwise than by ascending the higher ledges of its mountain-boundary. Skirting under the summit of the mountain, on narrow and broken ledges of rock, Dr Holland arrived at a spot where the interior of the profound chasm opened suddenly before him, presenting vast and almost perpendicular precipices, conducting the eye downwards to the dark line which the river forms in flowing beneath. The view from hence is inexpressibly grand, not only in its magnitude, but also from the boldness and abruptness of all its forms, and a sort of sombre depth and obscurity in its features to which it would be difficult to find a parallel. In one glance the progress of the river may be traced for 7 miles, between mountains some of which are upwards of 3,000 feet above its level.[6] The principal lakes are the Lago di Scu-

[5] Strabo, lib. vii. p. 316, mentions a place called *Nymphaion*, in the territory of Apollonia, where fire issued from the ground. Vitruvius, Pliny, Ælian, Plutarch, Dion Cassius, and others, also notice it; and the latter particularly says, that the flames were increased by rain, which is the case at Pietra Mala, where the peasants foretel heavy rains, some hours before they begin to fall, by the increasing size and fury of the flames which issue from the ground. Asphaltus, in a fluid state, is produced near Apollonia, and a lucrative trade is carried on in the same substance, which abounds at Selenitza, eight miles distant. The fire near Apollonia is represented on a scarce silver coin. On one side is the head of Apollo, and on the other three nymphs dancing before the fire. Pausanias probably alludes to the same thing in speaking of Bathos in Arcadia, where he says fire is seen issuing out of the ground. There are other instances of ignited hydrogen in various mountainous countries. That mentioned by Beaufort, near Deliktash, is of a similar nature; and he conceives it to be the same noticed by Pliny on Mount Chimæra in Lycia. It is singular that the name *Chimæra*, should have been given also to a place near the site of Apollonia. Ctesias mentions the perpetual fire near Phaselis in Lycia, which is the same described by Beaufort. A similar flame is said to exist in the isle of Samos.

[6] The road proceeds along this extraordinary valley for 4 miles, winding among rocks forming its eastern barrier, 700 feet above the stream; it then turns suddenly to the right, up a deep recess among the mountains: here there appears no egress,—vast pine-covered precipices meet the eye on all sides,—and no one point seems accessible beyond that where you stand at the moment. A second turn brought Dr Holland to an ascending cork-screw path, so steep and rugged, that it was with infinite difficulty the luggage horses could gain the summit. This circuit is necessary from the increasing steepness of the chasm through which the river flows, as it approaches the central part of Suli. "From the lofty point I had now attained," says our traveller, "the scenery of this central region opened out in a very magnificent manner: the insulated mountain heights on which stand the fortresses of Suli, already seen at intervals through the steep pass by which we had entered, were now directly in front of the landscape; the river flowing in its profound channel below, but here entirely concealed from view. From the great gallery of the Seraglio of Suli, you look down a precipice a thousand feet high, into the dark waters of the river below; which thus seen, is a fit representative of the river Acheron. On every side is scenery of the wildest and most extraordinary nature, with a disorderly magnificence about it, which perhaps forms its most striking peculiarity. The mountains and precipices, all on the grandest scale, are thrown confusedly around, as if some other agency than the slow working of nature had operated to pro-

tari or di Zento, and the Lago di Horli. The coasts are steep and inaccessible. The author of Childe Harold has sketched with great accuracy and beauty the principal features of this region in the following lines:

" Land of Albania! let me bend mine eyes
On thee, thou rugged nurse of savage men!
The cross descends, thy minarets arise,
And the pale crescent sparkles in the glen
Through many a cypress-grove within each city's ken.

duce these effects. Towards the south, and over the peaked summits which environ the seraglio, is seen the long chasm-like channel of the Acheron—beyond it the country stretching down to the gulf of Arta—the gulf itself and the Acarnanian mountains in the remote distance. Westward, you look down precipices, intersected by deep ravines, to that point in the river, where, receiving the Zagouri from the north, it at once turns to the west, and continuing its course for some way between cliffs of immense height. makes a sudden exit from its confined channel to the wide and fertile plains of Paramithia. Northwards the view is full of the finest mountain scenery; it is in fact a vast amphitheatre of mountains—the space within, not a plain country—but every where intersected by ridges and profound ravines. Through the principal of these ravines flows the Zagouri, whose dark and secluded course might well admit of its being called the Cocytus. From the seraglio it required an hour's descent to the junction of the Zagouri: here the river turns suddenly to the west, the route being sometimes on the southern side, sometimes receding to avoid the deep chasms which descend to it; sometimes pursuing a dangerous path on narrow ledges of rock which overhang its waters. One point in it is very extraordinary, where the path, scarcely 4 feet wide, passes at the height of 150 feet above the river; and so entirely impends over it, that a stone dropped from the hand, somewhat stretched out, falls far within the water. Above the head are great cliffs, forming a magnificent front on this side the river; while on the other are precipices equally steep—and the mountain rises above into heights which at this time (4th of March) were deeply covered with snow. The poplars appearing at intervals among the scenery, brings to mind the old story of Hercules having brought this tree from the banks of the Acheron into other parts of Greece. The pass at this place is almost impracticable to the traveller; wholly so to the enemy. Just below it on the north, a large stream joins the river, by a subterraneous channel through the rocks, from which it rushes out with great violence. Nothing can be finer than the retrospective view from this point of the cliffs, peaks, and fortresses of Suli: here the river, leaving its dark channel, spreads out into a wide stream, which runs winding through the plain of Glyky, or valley of Paramithia towards the sea. The port of Phanari, or Glykys, which is its æstuary, is from 16 to 20 miles S.W. from where it here issues from the mountains of Suli. In this interval the river obtains the name of Glyky." From all these facts observed attentively, respecting the extraordinary wild and gloomy scenery of Suli, Dr Holland concludes it to be the Acheron of the poets and mythologists. The testimonies of the ancient geographers and historians concerning the Acheron in question, as there were more Acherons than one, combined with the description above, seem decisive of the point. Herodotus says that it flowed through Thesprotia,—a course exactly answering that of the river Suli. Strabo, Ptolemy, and Thucydides, make it rise in the country of the Molossi, pass through the Acherusian lake, and discharge itself into the Thesprotian bay. The enumeration given by Ptolemy of the places on this coast, entirely harmonizes with the relative situation of the mouth of the Acheron as given by Strabo: as the small isles of Sybota, the promontory of Cheimerium, the port of Glykys, and the Acheron which flows into it, running from the Acherusian lake, and carrying a full stream so as to freshen the gulf. With this Thucydides also agrees in describing the voyage of the Athenian fleet from Leucadia to Corcyra; and Eustathius in his commentary on the 11th of the Odyssey renders it evident that the river of Suli represents this famous stream, falling into the sea at the port Glykys. It is an interesting fact that the small isles of Sybota, and the port called Glykys, at the mouth of the Acheron, actually retain the same name at the present day; it is an additional proof of the river of Suli being the true Acheron, that there is within less than a mile of its mouth, a small lake or expansion of the river, corresponding exactly in situation with the *Acherousia Limnē* of Thucydides. This lake—as Dr Holland learned from Psalida,—is about 3 miles long by half that in breadth; not very deep, and surrounded by hills of small elevation. This hypothesis is much better founded than that of Pouqueville, who makes the lake of Joannina the *Acherusia Palus*, and a small rivulet flowing into it the Cocytus, and another rivulet entering it on the S.E. the Styx; and the marsh at the N.W. end of the lake Avernus, and the plain of Joannina, the Elysian fields. It must be observed, that the names Acherusia and Acheron were not confined solely to Epirus, but merely, that the lake and river of this region were the most-celebrated, and best-known in their connection with mythology. Pausanias, *Lib. xi. p.* 196, mentions an Acherusia near Corinth; and Diodorus Siculus, *Lib. i. p.* 86, speaks of one in Egypt, in the vicinity of the catacombs. According to Strabo, there was an Acheron in Elis in Peloponnesus; and according to Pomponius Mela, *Lib. i. cap.* 19, another Acheron in Phrygia.

Morn dawns; and with it stern Albania's hills,
Dark Suli's rock, and Pindus' inland peak,
Robed half in mist, bedewed with snowy rills,
Arrayed in many a dun and purple streak
Arise; and, as the clouds along them break,
Disclose the dwelling of the mountaineer:
Here roams the wolf, the eagle wets his beak,
Birds, beasts of prey, and wilder men appear,
And gathering storms around convulse the closing year."

Climate and Productions.] Albania enjoys the warm temperature of Italy, but is subject to droughts and violent north winds. The Albano Dalmatian Flora is connected with that of Italy, and the olive grows from the shores of the Adriatic to the first heights in Dalmatia and Albania. Lower Albania or Ancient Epirus, lies to the south of the 40th parallel; the heat of summer is oppressive, but the climate is colder than that of Greece. The plane, the cypress, and manniferous ash appear near the sea-coast beside the laurel and the lentisk; but the forests on Pindus consist chiefly of cedars, pine, larch, and chesnut-trees. The inhabitants cultivate cotton and silk, but the olive is ill-managed. The oxen of Epirus have degenerated since the days of Pyrrhus.

Trade.] The commerce of Albania was greatly promoted by Ali Pasha. The exports are grain, timber, oil, tobacco, cotton, and wool; they are chiefly conducted through the gulf of Arta, but the merchants reside principally at Joannina. The grain is chiefly sent to the Ionian isles, Italy and Malta; the timber is excellent, and grows almost on the shores; the cotton is received through Thessaly, and exported to the German and Italian ports. The only manufactured article of export is the Albanian *capote*, a large white woollen kind of great coat. The chief connections of the coast are with Greek houses at Trieste, and Maltese houses.

The Sandshak of Joanina.] This sandshak is now situated upon the frontiers of renovated Greece, having the gulf of Arta on the S.; the sandshaks of Avlona and Delvino on the W.; that of Monaster on the N.; and that of Tricala on the E. It is everywhere intersected by ridges of mountains branching off from the Hellenic chain, and rising to a great height. It comprises Epirus properly so called; and contains a population of above 400,000 souls.—Janina or Joanina, the capital, was founded either by John, son of Alexis Comnenus, or John Ducas, son-in-law of Theodore Lascaris. It is beautifully situated upon the western bank of a lake formed amid the ramifications of Pindus, and contains a population of 40,000 souls. It chiefly owes its celebrity to the infamous Ali Pasha.—Arta, on the Aracthus, 6 leagues to the N. of the gulf of Arta, is an ill-built but active town, with 10,000 inhabitants.—Prevesa, once a possession of France, is now a place of small importance, but pretty well fortified. The sandshak of Karli-Ili, or Acarnania, although marked by Hadji-Khalfa, appears to have been abolished, and the district incorporated with the sandshak of Joanina, and perhaps in part with the Capitan-Pasha's sandshak of Lepanto. This territory will be described under the head of Greece.

The Sandshak of Delonia or Delvino.] This district lies to the E. of Joanina, opposite to the island of Corfu. The tyranny of Ali Pasha has rendered it in many places a desert; but to the voyager along the coast it offers many points of scenery of exquisite beauty. It comprehends the ancient *Thesprotia.*—Delvino is a pretty large town on the road to Argyro-Castron.—Cominitza was a large town previous to its being ravaged by a

dreadful plague in 1780. To the N. of this place, near the lake of Pelodi, are the ruins of *Buthrotum*, the ancient capital of Epirus. The Venetians ceded this place to the French, who, in the treaty of Campo-Formio, in 1800, abandoned it to the Turks.—Parga occupies a strong position on the coast. It was founded in the 15th century, and long resisted the Turkish power, until weakly yielded by the English—on whose protection the Pargiotes had cast themselves—to Ali Pasha.

The Sandshak of Avlona.] This sandshak embraces all the coasts of the Adriatic, from the embochure of the Scombi, the ancient *Genusus*, to Chimera. On the N. it is bounded by the districts of Croya and Tyranna; on the E. by the sandshak of Ochrida; and on the S. by that of Delvino. It is a fertile and rich country, except in the mountainous districts, which are infested by brigands. Perhaps no portion of ancient Greece suffered more by the fall of the eastern empire than this country: Scythians, and Slavonians, and Triballi, have alternately swept with devastating fury over Avlona; the soldiers of Roger struggled for the possession on the plains of the Apsus; and Skender-Beg made it the theatre of his struggle with Amurath himself. It was erected into a Turkish sandshak in 1482.—The canton of Pekeni, between the Kabroni-usus and the ancient *Apsus*, is inhabited by about 6,000 Roman Catholics.—Berat or Arnaout is a fortified town. It was founded by Theodosius the younger, who called it *Pulcheriopolis*, in honour of his sister Pulcheria. The Bulgarians gave it the name of Beligrad, or 'the White City.' It is divided into two quarters, called More-Tchelebi and Goritza, with a population of 6,000 souls. The fortress commands the valley of the Kabroni; it is flanked at unequal distances by bastions, but it is almost destitute of water.

The Sandshak of Ilbessan or Elbassan.] This district contains about 68,000 inhabitants. Its capital was the ancient *Albanopolis*.—At the extremity of the gulf of Durazzo, is a town of the same name, on the site of the ancient *Dyrrachium*. It once formed the capital of Illyria. The fortress, like all those on the western shores of Greece, affords shelter to numerous and desperate pirates.

The Sandshak of Scutari or Scodra.] This sandshak is formed by Upper Albania. It is a populous and rich district; and its pasha is generally one of the most powerful of European Turkey.—The voivodalik of Dulcigno borders on the Monte-Negro. It is inhabited by Dulcignotes, Antivarians, Zogs, Murds, and Chiscands. The principal town occupies the site of the ancient *Colchinium*, 3 leagues to the N.W. of the Bojana. Between the Moraca and the Tara, the Pannani or Pannonians are located. In their neighbourhood, to the N.W., are the Colascinians, a fierce tribe which often devastate the Herzegovine and Bosnia.—The city of Scutari, the ancient capital of the kingdom of Gentius, prince of the Illyrians, and now that of Upper Albania, is a town of considerable trade, and contains 20,000 souls. There is a large manufactory of fire-arms here. A prolongation of the Dardanian chain, bending towards the N., forms here the province of Monte-Negro, which is inhabited by a fierce and independent race of people.

CHAP. XI.—ROMELIA.

ROMELIA is the most extensive province of European Turkey; and derives additional consideration from its comprehending the two largest cities of

that division of the empire, Constantinople and Adrianople. The Turkish *Ejalet Rumili* comprehends all the countries to the W. and N. of the Bosphorus, in the widest application of the name; but is generally regarded by Turkish geographers as embracing only the districts which anciently formed the countries of Thracia, Bulgaria, Servia and Greece; and of these some districts of coast-land, and all the islands of the Egean Sea, recently formed a distinct pashalik governed by the Capitan Pasha. Hassel, who says that he consulted the very best maps in his admeasurement of this large province, estimated its superficial extent—according to the Turkish arrangement—at 107,572 English square miles, and the total population in 1823 at 6,300,000 souls. Consistently with the arrangement which we have adopted, we shall divide our account of this country under the two heads of Thrace and Macedonia.

I. THRACE.

Boundaries, &c.] Thrace is bounded on the N. by Mount Hæmus; on the E. by the Black Sea and the Sea of Marmora; on the S. by the Egean; and on the W. by the Pangean chain of mountains. This country anciently comprised several independent kingdoms. Its present population consists of Greeks—in part the descendants of its ancient inhabitants—and Bulgarians, Turks, Armenians and Jews.

Trade.] Wool is the great article of exportation from this country. The quantity annually exported is valued at £250,000. It is not of a fine quality, but is wrought up with finer wools into a variety of stuffs. Cotton is cultivated in all the southern districts, and is exported both in a raw and manufactured state; but the supply from America has reduced this branch of Turkish commerce. The districts around the plain of Adrianople furnish a large quantity of excellent silk esteemed equal if not superior to that of Asiatic growth. Wax is a large article of export to England, France, and Holland. The tobacco, which is considered the finest reared in Europe, is chiefly consumed in the country; the surplus used to be exported to Russia. Olives are cultivated in the district extending between the gulfs of Enos and Lagos; but the oil is only used in the preparation of soap. There are manufactories of beautiful Morocco leather at Gallipoli. The wines of this province have greatly degenerated from their ancient reputation.

The Sandshak of Sophia.] This sandshak is divided into two parts. That which belongs to Thrace is intersected throughout its whole length by the Maritza; and is bounded on the N. by the western chain of the Hæmus; on the E. by the sandshak of Tchirmene; on the S. by Mount Rhodope; and on the W. by the chain of Scardus. The districts in the vicinity of Philippopolis are very fertile in rice, and this fertility has attracted the population from the northern declivities of Rhodope and the southern sides of Hæmus, to the neighbourhood of Philippopolis and the Maritza. The principal towns in this sandshak are:—Eski-Zaghra, a fortified position at the foot of the Hæmus; Jambol an agreeable little town on the confluence of the Tundsha and Islandji; Kizanlik on the great road which traverses the western part of the Balkan; Philippopolis on the southern bank of the Maritza in lat. 42° 10′, with a population, chiefly Grecian, of 30,000 souls; Tatar-Pazardjik with a population of 20,000 souls; and Costanitza, at the foot of Scardus, near the defile of Kiz-Derbend.

The Sandshak of Tchirmene.] This sandshak is traversed by the

Maritza and Tundsha. It is very fertile in grain. The city of Adrianople is situated in this sandshak. It was founded by the Emperor Adrian in a large and beautiful plain near the confluence of the Tundsha and the Arda. Its gilt minarets rising above groves of cypress and gardens of roses, its ornamented galleries and colonnades, its beautiful fountains and piazzas, give it a splendid appearance. Its population was recently estimated at 120,000 souls, one third were Turks; but the plague which broke out here in 1812 greatly reduced this number, and Madden, who visited it in 1828, estimates the population at only 90,000 souls. Its principal export is raw silk. It is 140 miles N.W. from Constantinople.—The town of Tchirmen has a population of about 2,000 souls.—Hermenli is a pretty little town on the Maritza chiefly inhabited by Bulgarians.—Jeni-Zaghra, which D'Anville confounds with Eski-Zaghra, contains about 1,300 souls.

The Sandshak of Kirk-kilissa.] The counter-forts of the Strandsha intersect this district from N.E. to S.E. and terminate abruptly on the coasts of the Black Sea. A ramification of these heights, called Cheitan, incloses the country of the ancient *Syrmiades.* The town of Eski-Baba, in this sandshak has a population of 8,000 souls.—Of the 40 churches which in the time of the Greek empire gave name to the city of Kirk-kilissa, only one remains. The population amounts to 8,000 souls, chiefly Jews. The surrounding country is well-cultivated.—Ainada or Niada is a fortified town inhabited by about 3,000 Turks. Its port under cape Ainada, the *Thynias promontorium* of the ancients, is capable of receiving large vessels.—Sizeboli, the ancient *Sozopolis*, is situated on one of the promontories formed by the chain of Mount Cheitan, on the S. of the gulf of Bourgas. Geographers have confounded this town with that of Anchialle, which belongs to the sandshak of Silistria, and is situated on the opposite side of the gulf. Both these towns are well-fortified and protect the entrance of the gulf. The inhabitants of Sizeboli amount to 8,000 souls, chiefly Christians, and furnish the best pilots of the Black Sea. We may here remark that the cupidity of the Turkish pashas has thrown the geography of the sandshaks in some instances into inextricable confusion. After passing over many leagues of country we often meet with towns and districts which politically belong to the sandshaks we have already discussed; and this confusion is nowhere more remarkable than in this part of the country. A great portion of the southern declivities of the Hæmus belong to the sandshak of Viza, although they are geographically situated in that of Kirk-kilissa. And again, at the southern extremity of this insulated portion of Viza, we find a small canton politically belonging to the sandshak of Silistria in Bulgaria.

The Sandshak of Viza.] This sandshak is the most mountainous and least fertile district of Thrace. It is divided by the Kutchuk-Balkan into two equal portions. The ancient *Melinophagi* inhabited the eastern district of this chain. Besides the metropolis of the empire, this sandshak contains the town of Indchiguis a little to the N.W. of Constantinople, chiefly inhabited by Bulgarians; Tchorlow to the W. of the Kutchuk-Balkan with a population chiefly Greeks; Caristaran with 3,500 inhabitants in the plains of Caristaran-Ovassi; Tchatal-Bourgas, on the great road to Constantinople, famous for its manufactories of the kind of pipe-bowls so highly prized by the Turks, called *loules;* Visa, the ancient residence of the kings of Thrace, under the western heights of Samakoska; and Serai, which now affords a tranquil habitation to the last descendants of the Khans of the Crimea.

City of Constantinople.] Constantinople, the capital of the Ottoman empire, situated in 41° 12″ N. Lat. is placed at the extremity of a counterfort, that forms part of a chain of high hills, which, running along the shores of the Black Sea, of the Bosphorus, and of the Propontis, joins Mount Hæmus at Rhodope. The formation of this counterfort on the south side is such that three-fourths of the houses of the city have a view of the sea. Some large ravines, deepened by the rain, serve as outlets to the waters of the fountains, and divide the irregular base on which this city is built into seven parts or hills, thus giving it a physical similitude to ancient Rome. Constantinople, founded by Byzas the leader of a Megarian colony, and formerly celebrated under the name of *Byzantium*, became more populous and more important as soon as Constantine, sensible of the immense advantages of its position, fixed his residence and the seat of the Roman empire here, in 330. This emperor gave it the name of *New Rome*, in order to make it a sharer in the glory and the advantages of the ancient mistress of the world. No one, however, called it any thing but Constantinople, or 'the city of Constantine;' and this appellation has been preserved to it by the Persians, by the Arabs, and even by the Turks, for, in the style of the Ottoman chancery, and upon the coin of the empire, this city is designated by the name of *Constantiniah*, although the Turks commonly call it *Stamboul* or *Istamboul.*[1] The hills upon which this city is built,—the superb imperial mosques, surmounted by immense cupolas, and surrounded by lofty minarets, of which the chief occupy the most elevated points of this promontory,—the monuments of ancient art,—the houses, painted in different colours, and interspersed with gardens, which are overtopped by cypress and other trees of perpetual verdure,—the disposition of all the edifices in form of amphitheatres, the aspect of the harbour, animated by the presence of vessels of all sizes, and by thousands of gondolas,—lastly, the distant perspective of the country, covered with the richest vegetation,—present a *coup-d'œil* the most beautiful and the most imposing that is to be found in the whole universe. The plantain and cypress, in particular, give an oriental aspect to the environs of Constantinople. The mulberry, the mimosa of the Nile, the acacia, the Trebizond palm, the pine, and the fig-tree, beautifully intermingle, and diversify the enchanting scenery around this metropolis. From the northern side of the harbour, the eye traces the longitudinal expanse of the city. Towards the S. it discoves the Mysian Olympus clad in eternal snow, and, immediately opposed to it, the oak-clad Arganthonis. Immediately behind Scutari lies the double-peaked Damatus, from the summit of which, following the sinuous course of the Bosphorus from its very mouth, the view spreads across the thickly studded towers of Constantinople to the expanding plains of the Propontis, where it encounters the Marmoric isles, and thence stretches to the far-distant mouth of the Hellespont. The celebrated 'mountains of Giants' rises immediately from the Asiatic shore of the Bosphorus, near its uppermost narrowing, opposite to Berjukdere. But this physical appearance is like the moral aspect which the vast empire of which Constantinople is the capital presents. The traveller, struck by the great extent of the Ottoman empire and by the recollection of its glory, thinks that he is about to traverse one of the most rich and powerful states in Europe; but, as soon as he has entered it, he sees nothing but weakness, disorder, anarchy, and all the symptoms of rapid decay.

[1] This is a Romaic appellation, signifying 'the city.' It has another name half-Turkish and half-Romaic, namely, *Islam-boul*, or 'the city of the Faith.'

The magic of the aspect of Constantinople disappears in the same manner. The heart shrinks,—a feeling of deep melancholy seizes on the soul of the traveller when, after having admired the exterior of this capital, which Nature has destined to be the queen of cities, he finds within it nothing but narrow, crooked, dirty, ill-paved streets,—houses of wood, of brick, and of mud, and covered with a deceptious cement,—large spaces strewn with the blackened ashes of conflagrations,—and a multitude of men, whose grave and unquiet physiognomy announces the pride that has dominion over them, or the fears that invade them, and on whose countenance there is seldom to be perceived a smile, or that pleasing gaiety which characterises a contented and happy people.

Constantinople, situated opposite the southern extremity of the canal of the Bosphorus, the enclosure of which, between two parallel chains of hills, forces the air to follow the rapid movement of the waters, enjoys the double advantage of having its atmosphere continually renovated and refreshed, and its accumulations of waste and pluvial waters carried away by the currents, which precipitate themselves from the harbour into the sea of Marmora. A N. wind prevails from April to September, and is usually succeeded by a S. wind which blows during the winter. When the wind blows during the latter season from the E. or N.E., the neighbouring mountains occasionally appear covered with a slight sprinkling of snow. No marshy ground exists near this city. Its temperature, very mild, never presents cold of more than from 4 degrees to 5 degrees below 0 of the thermometer of Reaumur, nor heat of more than 26 degrees. The meteorologic variations it experiences in the course of the year are about 64 days rainy, 5 snowy, 5 wintry, 20 overcast, 36 variable, 15 stormy, and 220 perfectly serene. With all these meteorologic advantages, Constantinople ought to be ignorant of the plague, which—always most active in heavy and wet weather—owes probably its origin and its renewal, as many observations have proved, to the warm and marshy places in the environs of Damietta, in Lower Egypt, whence this scourge, less fatal than the yellow fever, because it is easy to restrain and avoid it, spreads itself throughout all the provinces of the Ottoman empire, particularly in Autumn and Spring. But the carelessness of the government, the dominion of fanaticism and of established usages, will preserve the germs of this destructive malady as long as this capital shall continue under its present yoke. Constantinople has been frequently devastated by the bursting of the sea over its bulwark. In 1322 its violence threw down a considerable portion of the city-walls; and twelve years afterwards the adjacent country presented one wide sheet of water for a distance of 10 stadia. Under Justinian the Great it had been previously inundated for a space of 15 miles. These excesses of nature were generally the effect of earthquakes, with which this city has been often visited, and of which none were so pregnant with calamity as that of 875, when the whole of Asia was shaken to its centre, and the promontory of Laodicea engulphed in the ocean.

The suburbs of Fenar or Phanar, and Eyoub or Eïoub, form part of Constantinople, and are only separated from it by the walls. Both are situated at the extremity of the harbour. Phanar was inhabited by the Patriarch and the principal Greek families, and by the numerous suite of domestics and dependents which were attached to them. Eyoub is peopled by Turks only, and it contains the famous mosque called by the same name, where the standard of the prophet is deposited, and whither the Ottoman

sultans, after their accession to the throne, repair in order to be girded by the chief of the emirs with the sabre of command, which is the symbol of the military sovereignty. The suburbs of Hassekni, Cassim-pasha, Galata, and Tophana, all situated along the northern bank of the harbour, are inhabited, the first by Jews,—the second by the persons employed in the *Tersaneh* or grand naval arsenal,—the third by traders of all nations, among whom are thirty European factors,—and the fourth by cannoniers, artillery workmen, and their families. These suburbs, placed at the foot of a hill, are less healthy than other parts of Constantinople, on account of their exposure to the S., and do not enjoy, like Pera and Saint Dimitri, which are situated on the upper plateau that commands them, the agreeable and salutary winds of the Black Sea. Galata fell into the possession of the Genoese several years before the taking of Constantinople. The suburb of Scutari, the ancient *Chrysopolis*, situated on the Asiatic coast, is in a happy and cheerful position. The air which is breathed there is always pure and fresh, and its environs are fertile; it serves as the point of departure and arrival to all the caravans which traverse Asia Minor in their journey to Persia, Syria, and Hindostan. Its population exceeds 30,000 souls; and, from its close intercourse with the capital, it ought rather to be regarded as a dependance of the capital than as an Asiatic town.

The *materiel* of Constantinople and of its suburbs is composed of 14 imperial mosques, 200 ordinary mosques, about 300 *messjids* or chapels, 80 besestins or bazars, more than 500 fountains, and about 100,000 houses. The grand mosques, of which the magnificent columns were almost all taken from the ruined temples of ancient Greece, have been constructed upon the model of the church of St Sophia, which is imposing by its massiveness, and admirable for the grandeur of its cupolas and dome, but less elegant than the temples of ancient and modern Rome, and perhaps less interesting, with respect to boldness and lightness, than many churches of Gothic architecture. The smaller mosques and the messjids are only distinguished from private houses by their contiguity to a minaret, from the top of which the nezzins call the Mussulmans to prayers. The private houses are composed of light timber, the interstices being filled up with earth and bricks. Combustible and fragile, they resemble the condition of the men who inhabit them. If they chance to escape the frequent ravages of fire, they decay naturally, and fall into ruin at in about thirty years. The customs of the East, which establish a separation between men and women, render it necessary that these edifices should be divided into two parts, which communicate with each other only by a very narrow corridor, and of which one serves as a harem for the women, while the other is used for the reception of friends and strangers. Notwithstanding the great praises which the Greeks have lavished upon the beauty of Constantinople, before the epoch of its fall, it is probable that this city was then neither much better built nor more beautiful than it is at present; for the Turks, who have adopted the costume of the inhabitants of Constantinople, and who have given to all their grand mosques the form of St Sophia, must have been inclined to imitate the architecture of the Greeks in the construction of their private houses also. As there exists but very few edifices—with the exception of churches—whose existence is of higher date than the 16th century, we may believe, not without reason, that the houses of the Greeks which Mahommed II. reserved to himself for his share in the conquest of the city, were generally built of wood; and that, destroyed by fires, they have reappeared over and over again,

after these disasters, in the same external form and dimensions which they had before the taking of Constantinople by the Turks. The *besestins*, or public market-places, are immense corridors, narrow enough, and badly lighted, but built of stone and surmounted with arches to preserve from the ravages of fire the merchandises which are left there, under the watch of men appointed to take care of them. The merchants of all classes are here separated by nations and by professions. The Turks and the Armenians seldom ask too much for their goods, but the purchaser ought to be on his guard against the crafty Greek merchant; he ought also to reduce by half the prices asked by the Jews. In some parts there are open spaces, for the most part irregular, in the midst of this labyrinth of houses; but the two most remarkable are the *Hippodrome*, begun by Severus, and finished by Constantine, and the adjacent *Etmeidan*, where the Janissaries were accustomed to carry their flesh-pots, and to hold their assemblies when they wanted to overthrow the ministers, or to depose the sultan. The Hippodrome, which is used at present as in the time of the Greeks, for horse exercises, is 400 paces long, and 100 broad; its dimensions have not changed, since a needle of Egyptian granite, a pyramid of free-stone, and a column of bronze, are still actually standing in the central line of this place, and at equal distances from its two extremities. The Turks, turning to advantage the aqueducts constructed by the Roman emperors, have established at Constantinople a great number of fountains, of which the varied forms approach nearer to Chinese or Indian than to European architecture. The necessity of an abundant supply of water in every quarter of the city, for the baths and frequent ablutions of the Mussulmans, have made the Turkish fountaineers industrious. They are not much inferior to our own purveyors of waters. Their aqueducts and their hydraulic pyramids are directed with as much care as skill. But, occupying themselves with the present only, and disdaining to cast a thought upon the future which threatens them, the Turks have neglected the numerous cisterns which the Greek emperors constructed for the supply of Constantinople in the event of a siege, and have permitted the *Basilica* to be transformed into manufactories for cordage and silk yarn. The square or open space next in point of extent to the Hippodrome and Etmeidan, is the *Serai-Meidani*, or place before the seraglio. It is of irregular dimensions, and bounded on the N. by the walls and gates of the palace. Its centre is occupied by a large and handsome fountain; and its site is a portion of the space formerly occupied by the *Forum Constantini*, in the midst of which stood the celebrated column and equestrian statue of Justinian, erected in 539. The imperial residence, the New Seraglio, may be said to form 'a city within a city.' Its walls are nearly 3 miles in circuit, and contain 12 gates. The total number of souls residing within it has been recently estimated at 6,000 or 7,000. It presents the figure of a triangle, of which two of the sides are washed by the sea, and the third adjoins the metropolis itself.

The number of the inhabitants of Constantinople is uncertain. We can determine only by approximate calculations the population of a city where there is no account kept of deaths or births, and where travellers of all nations are admitted without passports. Some authors give to Constantinople and its dependencies a population of 500,000 souls; others pretend that the number of the inhabitants of this city and its suburbs is more than 1,100,000. The daily consumption of wheat can alone furnish us with the means of determining the number by approximation. Fifteen

thousand *kilqts* of flour, which are equivalent to 840,000 pounds leave every day the public magazines—in which is deposited, for the account of government, all the grain destined for the consumption of the inhabitants of Constantinople—and are delivered to a hundred principal bakers of this capital. Supposing that the daily consumption of each individual, men, women, and children inclusive, is one pound of flour, which is a large allowance, considering that the Turks make great use of fruits and vegetables, this will give us 840,000 souls; if we add to this number more than 30,000 persons who receive their subsistence from the seraglio, and a number of inhabitants proportioned to the daily consumption of wheat which is smuggled, we shall have a result of about 900,000 souls for the effective real population of Constantinople. Other calculations, founded on the ordinary course of mortality, when this city is not afflicted with the plague or by other contagious diseases, give pretty nearly the same results.—This general population divides itself into 120,000 Greeks, 90,000 Armenians, 50,000 Jews, 2000 Franks, 630,000 Mahometans. Each of these nations inhabits separate quarters, and has a distinct costume and different usages. The form of the *cahouk* or hat, and the colour of the boots, which is yellow for Mussulmans, red for Armenians, black for the Greeks, and blue for the Jews, serve to distinguish between them at the first glance. The Osmanlisand the Armenians, who are of Asiatic origin, have nearly the same manners and follow the same usages. Their wives live in retirement and wear a veil, which covers their figure, when they go into the streets. The Greek women, more free, are not always, perhaps, so pure in their manners. The Jews, come from Spain, have preserved the manners of their ancient country, but with the laxity, and sometimes the depravity, which always arises from the love of gain when it is superior to all other human considerations. The Franks live at Constantinople as in their native country. Having nothing to fear, either from the laws or from the local authorities by a course of capitulations which place them solely under the jurisdiction of their ambassadors, they live very much at ease, and wear the European costume with pride, since the Russians have, by repeated victories, taught the Turks to respect the Christian people of Europe. The suburb of Pera, where the foreign ministers reside, presents the union of all nations; all costumes are to be seen,—all languages to be heard here. The shops and warehouses of the traders are laid out as in London or Paris. French, Russians, English, Austrians, &c. all distinguished under the general name of Franks, avoid showing here their national hatreds and prejudices. They visit each other frequently, and live sometimes like brothers. It is in the contemplation, in this small space, of this fraternal concord between the subjects of the greatest sovereigns in Europe, that one may say that Pera is like an isle of European civilization in the midst of Asiatic barbarity. The palaces of the European ambassadors—which are called seraglios—would be in Europe mere town-houses. That of the French ambassador, which is situated on the rapid eastern declivity of the hill of Pera, enjoys a very beautiful view, and has a tolerably large garden. That of the Venetian ambassador (actually occupied by the Austrian internuncio) presents a tolerably beautiful front. The position of these two places proves that the plateau above was not inhabited when they were built. That of Russia is small, and little worthy of such an embassy. The house of the English ambassador, newly built on the commencement of the southern declivity of Pera, presents to the view a large square, of which the fronts, not in very good taste,

are only seen obliquely from the entrance, and of which the interior distributions afford none of the conveniences which so large a site promises.—The ground on which this palace is situated was presented by the Sublime Porte to England, as an acknowledgment for the deliverance of Egypt.

The harbour or 'golden-horn' of Constantinople, of which the direction is from the S.S.E. to the W.N.W. presents, in an extent in length of 4000 fathoms, and in breadth of 3000, a tranquil and safe anchorage. The depth of its waters, and the good holding of the bottom, which is of clay-mud, permit of the largest ships of the line approaching the two banks so as even to touch the houses. Although this harbour is the receptacle of the filth and drains of the suburbs Eioub, Hasse-Keni, Cassim-pasha, Galata, and Tophana, as well as of a part of those of Constantinople, still one never observes in it any encumbrance or accretion. Its waters always preserve the same depth. The immense works, expensive and sometimes insufficient, for clearing and cleansing harbours, which are seen in most of the maritime cities of Europe, are very unnecessary here, since nature itself performs this operation. The waters of the two streams, the Cydaris and the Barbyssa, known in modern times at their confluence by the name of the *Keatle-hané* or 'river of mild waters,' joining their impulsive action to that of the current of the Bosphorus, perform for the harbour of Constantinople the important service of carrying away towards the sea of Marmora the dirt and filth which might raise the bed of it, or form in it accretions or shallows. Upon the northern bank of the harbour, between Galata and Hasse-Keni, is the grand marine arsenal. A small bay, called formerly the Galley-harbour, is surrounded by the house of the *Tersana-emini*, or Intendant-General of the navy,—by a spacious place contiguous to a hill on which is built the vast palace that serves as the residence of the Grand Pasha,—by the large and magnificent barrack for the *galiondjis*, or sailors, constructed by order of the great Admiral Hassan Pasha,—and lastly, by the dock-yards and the basin for repairs of vessels, for which the Porte is indebted to M. Rode, a Swiss engineer. To the W. of the house of the Tersana-emini are all the naval magazines, and the quay, near which are moored the ships of the line, frigates, corvettes, and brigs, that constitute the naval force of Turkey. Behind the naval magazines, in a low and damp nook, situated near the hill on which the palace of the Capitan Pasha is built, stands the gloomy bagnio, where man is reduced to the last degree of misery and degradation, where the prisoner of war is joined with the malefactor, and where the threats and the blows of the guards and gaolers, mingling with the oaths and plaintive cries of the captives, call to one's mind the image of hell. The sultan Selim, who took a more lively interest in the wants and the glory of his empire than in his pleasures and personal enjoyments, had given up to the navy his seraglio of Ainali-Cavak, Castle of Mirrors, the favourite palace of Achmet III., where that prince took delight in admiring himself and his slaves in the large glasses which the senate of Venice sent him after the treaty of Passarowitz. Extensive works had already been commenced on that vast site, contiguous to the naval arsenal; but the deposition of the sultan Selim caused the abandonment of these projects, and the Grand Seignor has resumed possession of this ruinous palace, which he will in all probability never inhabit, because the expense of putting it into repair would amount to a very considerable sum. At the western extremity of the suburb of Hasse-Keni, which is itself placed to the W. of the seraglio Ainali-Cavak, is situated the military school. The site of this school hav-

ing become too small, on account of the number of the pupils and the new division of the classes, the sultan Selim had granted to this institution the palace of a sultana, sister of his father, which had not been occupied for several years; but after the fall of that prince, the pupils were oblige to quit the seraglio, which is fallen into ruins, and return to their old and confined habitation. The magnificent *Coumbazadjilar-kislaci* or 'barrack of the Bombardiers' is situated in front of the military school, and near to the sea. It forms, by its grandeur, its magnificence, and the height of the minarets of its mosque, one of the ornaments of the extremity of the harbour. Near this barrack are seen the furnaces for making bomb-mortars, and the manufactories of ordnance-carriages. The suburb Tophana, placed at the E. of Galata, in front of the seraglio, contains the vast barracks of the cannoniers and all the large establishments for artillery-works. The sultan Selim had constructed magnificent barracks at Scutari, Levend-Tchiflick, and near Pera. The two former edifices were destroyed by the Janissaries after the death of Mustapha Bairactar. The third has been spared, because it was not entirely finished at the epoch of this last revolution.

The canal of Constantinople, or of the Bosphorus, gives vent to the waters of the Black Sea, which flow rapidly towards the sea of Marmora, and from thence towards the Ægean Sea, by the canal of the Dardanelles or of the Hellespont. This canal which separates Europe from Asia, flows between two chains of parallel hills. Its depth varies from 15 to 20 fathoms in the middle of the stream. There are no shallows to render the navigation of it dangerous; but a single well-known rock, opposite Therapia, would be somewhat dangerous if it were not close to the shore. This canal is an excellent harbour throughout its whole extent of about 7 sea leagues; its bottom has good holding. Its sinuosities, and the hills which bound its coast, shelter it from all winds. The gulf Buyukdere, where this canal enlarges itself in extending itself towards the valley of the same name, serves as a place of anchorage, and as a station for vessels which are about to enter or to leave the Black Sea. The two coasts which, after this anchorage, extend themselves as far as the Black Sea, are more steep than they are in other parts of the canal. Some travellers have thought that all this part of the banks of the Bosphorus was formerly volcanic ground, and they pretend that the eruption of a volcano has produced this breach, by which the waters of the Black Sea are precipitated towards the Mediterranean. But general Andreossi—who made this district his study for three years, with all the attention of a learned geologist—perceived no trace of a volcano in this part of the Bosphorus; and he thinks that this strait exists because the chains of mountains of Asia Minor and of the Balkans of Europe, which direct themselves towards each other, decreasing as they go, are in this spot at their lowest point of abasement, and that they might have furnished naturally, and without having recourse to any violent rupture, an issue to the waters of the Black Sea. The canal of the Bosphorus is defended, near its opening into the Black Sea, by the two castles of Phanar, or beacons of Europe and Asia; these two forts answer badly the end for which they were designed; but the new castles of Boiraz and Caribdgé, constructed by Baron de Tott, at the place where the canal begins to narrow itself, are distant from each other only 500 fathoms, and can engage an enemy's ship with advantage, as well on account of their proximity to each other as of the commanding position of their casemated batteries. The forts of Roumeli-Cavaï and of Anatoli-

Cavaï, have only batteries which are open and close to the edge of the water. Situated at the foot of a hill, of which the brow is cut by a large wall of support, these batteries would be commanded by the fire of the high batteries of ships of the line, and would become the receptacle of all the shot, which might strike against the wall behind. In the new system of defence of the Bosphorus, there have been intermixed, at nearly equal distances, other batteries with the old castles of the canal; these batteries are sometimes *rasant* and sometimes elevated 7 or 8 fathoms above the level of the sea. Several batteries have been constructed on the shores of the Buyukdere road, in order to prevent a hostile squadron establishing itself in this anchorage, after having passed the upper part of the canal in spite of the defensive works. Placed in a central position between the regions of the N. and of the S.,—between the people of the E. and of the W. being able to communicate with them by the Euxine Sea, the Propontis, the Archipelago, the Mediterranean, and the ocean, and by all the adfluents of these seas,—presenting a vast, safe and commodious anchorage, in its harbour and the canal of the Bosphorus, to all the vessels of the world,—Constantinople seems to be destined by nature to be the metropolis of the earth. Reduced to the possession of no more than a radius of some square leagues around its walls, under the reigns of the last Greek Emperors, this city presented still a respectable appearance, and formed alone the Roman empire. What may be its lot hereafter—whether the capital of a vast empire or of a small kingdom, or even a city free and independent—Constantinople will always be, in spite of all revolutions and political reverses, one of the first cities in the universe. But, in addition to the political and commercial advantages which Constantinople enjoys by its position, this city may also easily become the first of the military places of our continent. Built upon a triangular promontory, of which two sides are washed by deep waters, it is assailable on one side only. This defensive side, presenting a straight line, would enjoy all the advantages of the large half-moon system of fortification. The suburbs of Pera, Saint-Dimitri, and Galata, may form by their junction an important place of very great strength, and of excellent support to Constantinople. Their compass passing above the Turkish burial place, upon the plateau of Pera near Saint-Dimitri, and then by Ekmeidan, might abut on one side to the Bosphorus, behind Dolma-Bakche, and on the other side, to the harbour of Constantinople, between Hasse-Keni and the seraglio of the Ainali-Cavak. Constantinople is 330 miles E. of Salonichi, and 912 S.E. of Vienna. There is no city in the world which enjoys the unenviable distinction of having been so often besieged as Constantinople. From the time of Alcibiades to that of Mahommed II. it has undergone 24 sieges; the first and the last, with those of Severus, Constantine, Dandolo, and Michael Palæologus, were however the only occasions on which the assailants were not repulsed.

The Sandshak of Gallipoli.] This sandshak comprehends the southern part of ancient Thrace, and the eastern part of Macedonia. It is bounded on the N. by the sandshaks of Sophia, Tchirmene, Kirk-Kilissa, and Viza; on the E. by the territory of Constantinople; on the S. by the sea of Marmora, the Straits of the Dardanelles, the Archipelago, and the sandshak of Salonichi; and on the W. by the latter sandshak and that of Ghuistendil. It thus comprehends all the coast from Constantinople to the gulf of Cavala opposite to the isle of Thassos, and forms the most important sandshak in the government of the Capitan-Pasha. Its total

superficial extent may be estimated at 9,600 square miles. The coast is bordered by mountains of moderate height, between which are the gulfs of Cavala, Lagos, Enos, and Saros the ancient *Melas*. The principal capes are Grenica, Makei, Marogna, and Asperosa. The Despoto-Dagh, the ancient *Rhodope*, a branch of the Balkan, forms the northern boundary for a considerable length; the eastern barrier is formed by the Tekkiur-Dagh. The Maritza or *Hebrus*, which intersects the country from N. to S., is the principal stream. It receives the Ipsala-sou, the Tchema, and the Erkene. The Caratch, the Arda, the Cara-sou or Nesto—the ancient *Nestus*, the Anghista, and the Stroma or *Strymon*, water the western parts of the country. All these rivers flow into the Archipelago. The only remarkable lake is the Takinos, the ancient *Cercine*. The soil of this country is very varied; in some places it is stony, in others sandy, in some arid, in others very fruitful. The climate is very pleasant. The land is well-cultivated, and produces wheat of an excellent quality; rice on the banks of the Maritza and Carasu; cotton in the plains of Seres and the peninsula; and tobacco in the environs of Cavala. Wood is rather scarce; the pasturages are extensive and support large herds of cattle; fishing is productive in the gulf of Enos. The principal articles of exportation are corn, cotton, silk, raw wool, morocco-leather, and gall-nuts. The sandshak is divided into the sandshak of Gallipoli, properly so called, which is subdivided into 23 districts, and the beglik of Seres, which is subdivided into 4 districts. The population of this classical region may amount to 600,000 souls. The ancient cities of *Abdera*, *Enos*, *Lysimachia*, *Heracleus*, and *Selymbria*, were situated in this district; the *Strymon* and the *Hebrus* recall the tragical tale of Orpheus. The city of Gallipoli, or *Kalepolis*, is situated in the Thracian Chersonese, at the entrance of the Dardanelles. It is a well-built, but ill-fortified place. Its commerce is active; the principal manufactures are morocco, pottery-ware, and cotton and silk-thread. Its inhabitants are said to amount to 15,000. Gallipoli was the first European city which fell into the hands of the Turks.—Maito, to the S.W. of Gallipoli, presents strong fortifications to the sea, but is commanded by a small eminence in the Chersonese.—At Cumourdjina, the ancient *Maronia*, two important fairs are yearly held, at which a good deal of business is done in cotton and tobacco.—Kilidbahr, the ancient castle of the Dardanelles, must not be confounded with the ancient Sestos, of which the ruins are still visible between Gallipoli and Maita.—From this place to Seddbahr, the new castle of the Dardanelles, the country is desert, presenting nothing but a few cypresses and solitary tombs.—Dimotœcha, the ancient *Didymotæchon*, is an appanage of one of the descendants of the ancient Khans of the Crimea, and formed the residence of the sultans before the conquest of Constantinople.

II. MACEDONIA.

Boundaries, &c.] Macedonia is one of the most fertile countries of European Turkey. It was anciently divided into Macedonia Proper, Peonia, and Dardania or Macedonian Illyria. It is bounded on the N. by Servia and a part of Upper Bosnia; on the E. by Bulgaria and Thrace; on the S. by the Archipelago and Thessaly; and on the W. by Albania. It produces wine, oil, cotton, and all the cereales. The chain of Scardus, and Pangæus still celebrated for its silver-mines, with the southern ramifications of Pindus, enter and traverse this beautiful country. We have already

sketched the history of Philip's kingdom. Its northern parts were peopled by Illyrian colonists, whose descendants still exist here under the name of Vlaches; the rest of the population has chiefly derived its origin from Greece.

The Sandshak of Pristina.] This sandshak politically belongs to that of Scutari, but geographically to the country of Macedonia. It is highly fertile, and comprehends the plain of Kossovo, the ancient *Campus Merulæ.* Its chief places are Pristina, Janova, Kossovo, and Novo-Berda.

The Sandshak of Ghiustendil.] This is a considerable district of Macedonia, comprehending nearly all the ancient Peonia, which is separated from Macedonia properly so called by the heights of Perserin-Dagh. In the canton of Carattova, which occupies the centre of this district, there are some rich silver-mines. The canton of Caradjova furnishes the finest Turkish horses. Ghiustendil or Kostendil, is a fortified town to the S.E. of Strymon. This place might form the key to Northern Greece, according to the ancient limits of that country. Its population is about 8,000 souls. —Keupreli upon the Vardar, is the central point of communication between the towns of Macedonia and those of the western provinces of European Turkey.

The Sandshak of Uscup or Uskub.] This is the smallest sandshak of Macedonia. It is mostly formed by the upper valley of Vardar, having the chain of Scardus on the W. and that of Gliubotin on the N. Uscup or Scopia is another appanage of the chief of the eunuchs. The great defile of Tettivo is within 3 leagues of this place. The little canton of Cotevar occupies the southern point of this sandshak.

The Sandshak of Ochri or Ochrida.] This sandshak is the most barren and wild district of all European Turkey. It is bounded on the N. and N.W. by Scutari, on the W. by Avlona, and on the E. by Monastir. Ochrida, the capital, is the centre of communication betwixt Scutari, Trawnik, and Janina. It was founded by Samuel, despot of Servia, and fortified by Amurath. The lake of Ochrida, the ancient *Lychnidus,* lies between Mount Bora and the Candavian chain; it abounds in fish, and its shores are inhabited by Albanians.

The Sandshak of Monastir.] This sandshak is bounded on the N. by the sandshak of Uskup; on the E. by those of Salonichi and Ghiustendil; on the S. by Thessaly; and on the W. by Albania. The chain of Pindus cuts its western limits, and the mountains of Sarakina, Tsinatzigos, and Mororitchi—which are only ramifications of the same chain—intersect it from E. to W. so as to divide the waters of the Aliacmon from those of the Erigone. This district comprehends the ancient Pelagonia, Emathia, Brygia, Mygdonia, Orestida, Stymphalida, Elymea, and Eordea. Its chief town, Monastir or Bitoglia, is the residence of the pasha of Romelia. It contains a population of 15,000 souls. The canton of Monastir occupies the centre of the plains which are traversed by the heights of Sarakina.

The Sandshak of Salonichi.] This district is bounded on the N. by the heights of Caradjova and Velitz-Dagh; on the E. by the sandshak of Seres; and on the W. by the mountains of Hero-Livado, which separate it from Monastir, the ancient Chalcedonian Chersonesus. The Vardar, which flows into the gulf of Salonichi, divides it into two parts. The canton of Cara-Dagh is very mountainous; but that of Moglena offers fertile plains, inhabited by an industrious population.—Salonichi, the ancient *Thessalonica,* is, next to Constantinople, the principal port of European Turkey. Its population, composed of Greeks, Turks, Armenians, and

Jews, with many Germans, French, and English, amounts to nearly 70,000 souls.—The chain of Mount Athos commences here at the village of Sidero-Kapsi, and terminates at the most eastern point of the Chalcidian Chersonesus.—Orphano is a considerable trading-town, near the lake of Talcinos, upon the northern coast of the gulf of Strymoniaca.—Alla-Kislassi, about one mile to the N. of Jenidje, is built upon the site of the ancient *Pella*, once the capital of the kingdom of Macedonia. Its inhabitants are Albanians.—Vodyna on the Vistritza, was the ancient place of sepulture of the Macedonian kings.—Veria or Cara-Veria, in this district, is on the site of the ancient Berea.

Athos.] Athos was no less celebrated for its height and bulk, than Olympus for its amazing loftiness. It is, properly speaking, a chain of mountains eight leagues long, and four broad, running far into the sea, and joined to the mainland of Macedonia by an isthmus which Xerxes, the Persian monarch, proposed to cut through and separate from the Continent. This peninsula anciently contained six cities. Its elevation has been prodigiously exaggerated: by Mela it is affirmed to reach above the clouds or middle region of the air. Martianus Capella asserted it to be six miles high; and it was a received opinion that rain never fell on its summit, because the ashes left on the altars erected near its top were always found as they were left—dry and unscattered. Its elevation was made so great by Plutarch and Pliny, that its shade was supposed to be projected, when the sun was in the summer-solstice, on the market-place of the city Myrrhina, in the isle of Lemnos. The latter made the distance between the foot of Athos and the island of Lemnos 87,000 paces. Supposing the shadow to have been observed when the sun was in the vertical circle, a little before sun-set, or rather two degrees higher, as otherwise the shadow could not be so exactly observed at Lemnos, the result on geometrical principles, would have been an elevation of 32 stadia, or more than 4 English miles, an altitude greater than that of Chimborazo, the highest of the Andes. The accuracy of the result depends on the exact distance between the two points, which has not yet been determined. At any rate the distance assigned by Pliny is by far too great, being 87, instead of 55 miles; which, being assumed as the true distance, reduces the elevation to 11 stadia or 7,500 geometrical, or 8,000 English feet. Its height has been given in Walpole's *Memoirs of European Turkey*, at 713 toises, or 4,350 English feet, and by Kastner at 3,353 feet. A later measurement, taken barometrically by captain Gautier, has been inserted in the *Annales de Chimie et de Physique*, for December 1821, which fixes its true altitude at 6,776 English feet. It is as celebrated in modern as in ancient times, being now called the Ἅγιον Ὄρος, or 'the Holy Mountain:' there being now no less than 30 monasteries erected by Greek devotees, and inhabited by about 6,000 recluses, on its summit and sides. Athos commands a splendid view of the Cyclades and Hellespont.

CHAP. XII.—GREECE.

THE political and physical geography of this highly interesting country has, till of late, been very imperfectly known. It seems strange, that whilst for nearly three centuries, a deep and intimate knowledge of the immortal language of this once glorious country was deemed an essential part of an academical course,—a knowledge of its geography should have

formed no part of polite education. Hence it followed that we were long as ignorant of the geography of Modern Greece as of Central Asia. It was considered as a country not worth knowing,—as being inhabited by rude and barbarous tribes, under the sway of fanatical Turks, who had annihilated all traces of its ancient glories,—the descendants of its ancient inhabitants were imagined to have totally disappeared under the ruthless and destroying hand of Ottoman despotism, or to have lost every trace of resemblance to their celebrated ancestors. Yet supposing that all this had been the case, still it was surely worth while to know something of the country that produced such a wonderful people,—to be acquainted with those natural beauties and varied scenery whence so many inspired poets have drawn such animated descriptions,—to compare its physical phenomena with its poetical imagery. But nothing of this was done; and the only intelligible accounts we possessed of Grecian geography were drawn from Strabo and Pausanias. The inquiries of a Spon and a Wheeler, of a Le Roy and a Stuart, were suited only to classical readers and people of taste. These accounts were succeeded by Chandler's travels, which were more adapted to general use, and gave some gleams of light respecting the political and physical state of this country. The travels of Anacharsis by the Abbe Barthelemy, accompanied by an elaborate geographical memoir of Ancient Greece, with particular maps of all the ancient political divisions of that country by Barbie de Bocage, contributed more than any other prior performance to excite public curiosity. The interdiction of all commerce with continental Europe during the late war, when the power of France was at its acme, directed the attention of British travellers towards Greece and Asia Minor; hence we have been supplied with copious details from the pens of Clarke, Dodwell, Laurent, Hughes, Hobhouse, Holland, and other travellers of the day, respecting the physical geography of Greece, and the present state of its inhabitants. Our possession of Malta, and particularly of the seven Ionian Islands, has likewise brought us almost into contact with this country. The contributions of British geographers and travellers on the subject of Greece are daily enlarging; and the French government has very recently sent out an exploratory scientific commission to the Morea, at the head of which is M. Bory St Vincent. Our knowledge of Grecian geography is therefore on the increase; and if the present struggle for political freedom maintained by the natives be ultimately successful—of which, from the rapidly declining state of the Ottoman power, there is a just and rational hope—our acquaintance with it will soon be as complete as our knowledge of any other country in Europe.

General Divisions.] Greece, or the country of Hellas, may be divided into three geographical sections:—Thessaly, Livadia, and the Morea, to which also we might add the islands of the Archipelago. But the two latter portions of this remarkable country will be better treated by themselves, and in this chapter we shall confine ourselves to the geography of Thessaly and Livadia.

Physical Features.] More than half the surface of Greece is made up of mountains, and consequently incapable of culture. All the land capable of culture does not perhaps constitute two-fifths of the whole. The country is generally bare of wood, and, from the want of enclosures, the profusion of weeds and brushwood, the thinness of the population, and the ruinous condition of the few cottages, combined with the crumbling remains of the noble structures of the ancients—has a desolate, melancholy,

and deserted aspect, well-harmonizing with the fallen fortunes of the country.

> "And yet how lovely in thine age of woe,
> Land of lost gods and godlike men art thou!
> Thy vales of evergreen, thy hills of snow,
> Proclaim thee Nature's varied favourite now."

In the end of summer, from the excessive heat which dries up the streams, the hills and fields appear parched. In many parts of the country, however, there are copious perennial springs, which gush out suddenly from the limestone rock. Every feature essential to the finest beauties of landscape is combined here, except large rivers, which are perhaps incompatible with the general character of the scenery. Its mountains belted with woods and capped with snow, though far inferior to the Alps in absolute height, are perhaps as imposing from the suddenness of their elevation. At their feet lie rich and sheltered plains, wanting nothing but an industrious and free population to fill the mind with images of prosperity, tranquillity and felicity. It is, however, the combination of these more common features, with so many spacious bays and inland seas, broken by headlands, enclosed by mountains, and speckled and studded with islands in every possible variety of magnitude, form, and distance, that renders Greece superior in scenery to every other part of Europe. The effect of such scenery, aided by a serene sky and a delicious climate, on the character of the Greeks, cannot be doubted. Under the influence of so many sublime objects, Greece became the birth-place of taste, science, and eloquence,—the native country of all that is graceful, dignified, and grand, in sentiment or action. Northern poetry, nursed amidst bleak mountains, seas covered with constant fogs, and agitated by storms, is austere, gloomy, and terrific; but what subjects for varied poetry must exist in a land where heaven and earth seem to be brought together,—where the mountain-tops shining above the clouds seem as thrones for immortal beings,—while Apollo the 'long, long summer gilds,' and the ever-azure heavens, and 'laughing seas' smile upon and encircle the verdant earth? The Muses have consequently haunted the mountains and the vales, the hills and the rocks, the woods and the groves, the fountains and the streams of Greece. In this rich and beautiful land, imagination awakened into action, was gay, joyous, and luxuriant; and still

> "Where'er we tread, 'tis haunted holy ground;
> No earth of thine is lost in vulgar mould:
> But one vast realm of wonder spreads around,
> And all the Muses' tales seem truly told;
> 'Till the sense aches with gazing to behold
> The scenes our earliest dreams have dwelt upon;
> Each hill and dale, each deepening glen and wold
> Defies the power which crush'd thy temples gone;
> Age shakes Athena's power, but spares gray Marathon
>
> Long to the remnants of thy splendour past
> Shall pilgrims, pensive but unwearied, throng;
> Long shall the voyager, with th' Ionian blast,
> Hail the bright clime of battle and of song;
> Long shall thine annals, and immortal tongue,
> Fill with thy fame the youth of many a shore;
> Boast of the aged, lesson of the young,
> Which sages venerate, and bards adore
> As Pallas and the Muse unveil their awful lore!"

Nearly the whole surface of Greece is occupied by a great formation of compact limestone, of a whitish or bluish-grey colour, approaching in some cases to the nature of chalk. In some places, it forms long continu-

ous sharp ridges; in others, round or craggy summits, and it presents strata highly inclined. It contains a few organic remains, with many flint nodules, and some beds of gypsum on the west side, and occasionally masses of calcareous conglomerate. The Acropolis of Athens consists of calcareous conglomerate; Parnassus and Helicon are entirely formed of compact limestone; and the soil rests on mica-slate near Athens. The hills of Attica are composed generally of primitive limestone, and this substance, with clay-slate, serpentine, sienite, and porphyry, abound in Negropont, the central parts of Pindus, Olympus, and Athos, and all round the gulf of Salonica. Farther N. in mount Scomius and Rhodope, granite and gneiss are found. It is to the peculiar constitution of this great limestone formation, that Greece owes those physical features which so remarkably distinguish it—the numerous caverns, fountains, subterraneous river-courses, hot springs, and gaseous exhalations, which originated so many of the popular superstitions of the ancients.

Mountains.] The Hellenic mountains may be regarded as forming the S.W. branch of the Turkish Balkan; but in addition to the general details already furnished respecting them, the following information, it is presumed, will be acceptable in this place.

Olympus.] The celebrated mountain *Olympus* was considered not merely as the loftiest summit in Greece, but even, in the opinion of the ancient geometricians, as the highest elevation of the globe. Its height, we are informed, was accurately measured by the philosopher Xenagoras, and found to be 10 stadia and a plethrum, or nearly 7,000 English feet. This is somewhat more than the elevation assigned to it in the *Memoires de l'Academie des Sciences,* by John Bernouilli, where it is given at 1,017 toises, or 6,512 English feet. The misfortune is, that in these measurements no mention is made of a fixed base, to enable us to judge of the accuracy of the calculations. Snow is said to lie frequently on certain parts of Olympus during the whole year. The ascent, however, is perfectly practicable in the summer-season. Olympus is now called *Elimbo* in Romaic, and *Samavat Evi,* or 'the Celestial House,' in Turkish. The appellation Olympus, perhaps, formerly denoted any very lofty eminence, as it was common to many celebrated mountains. Thus it was given to one in Pieria in Macedonia; to a second in Bithynia; to a third in Mysia; to a fourth in Cyprus; a fifth in Crete; a sixth in Lesbos or Mitylene; a seventh in Elis; an eighth in Arcadia; a ninth in Lycia; and a tenth on the western side of the Attic Peninsula. "Towards the S.E." says Dr Clarke, "and rather behind our route as we journeyed towards Tempe, appeared Mount Pelion; but the view of Olympus engrossed our particular attention, owing to the prodigious grandeur into which its vast masses were disposed. We had never beheld a scene of bolder outline. In this grand prospect, the only diminutive objects were the distant herds of cattle, grazing in detached groups on the plain in the foreground. All the rest consisted of parts of such magnitude, that, in their contemplation, animated nature is forgotten. We think only of that Being who is represented in the immensity of his works, and thereby indulge the same feelings which first induced the benighted heathens to consider the tops of their mountains as habitations of the Most High God."[s] The best view of this far-

[s] Such are the feelings excited in the minds of the Hindoos at sight of Mount Himalla, to which Olympus, great as it is, is comparatively diminutive. They consider this lofty range as the abode of their divinities, and its highest summits as the seat or throne of the Great God. Those peaks which surpass the rest in elevation are mytho-

famed mountain is from the plain of Pella to the N., or from the city of Salonichi, where its magnitude is such as to fill all the view towards the western side of the gulf of Thermæ, and actually to dazzle the eyes of the beholder with the radiance reflected from its snow-clad summit. Instead of seeming remote from the place of his observation—though 55 miles distant—so enormous is its size as to seem close to his view. It will not however present so sublime a spectacle in the summer-months, when its snows are melted; and its elevation is considerably inferior to that of the Asiatic Olympus, whose summit is always covered with snow, and is distinctly visible from Constantinople, though more than 100 miles distant. The base and sides of Olympus are covered with thick woods of oak, chesnut, beech, and planetree; and the acclivities are clothed with large pine-forests, giving that sombre appearance to it so often alluded to by the poets, being denominated by Horace, *Opacus Olympus*; and by Seneca *Pinifer Olympus*. Its summit is an obtuse cone, with somewhat of a concave line on each side.

Parnassus.] The famed *Parnassus* seems to be regarded by Clarke and Holland as the loftiest summit in Greece—nay, by the former it is considered as one of the highest in Europe. It is amazing how Clarke could either say or think so; as it does not enter the region of constant congelation, and cannot therefore be half the elevation of Mounts Rosa and Blanc, or the Orteler Horn. He ascended it in the month of December, and reached the summit, after consuming 4½ hours only in the journey from the village of Arracovia. This village is indeed pretty high up the mountain; three hours distant from Delphi at its foot; but as the road from the latter to the former is an easy ascent, with a number of windings, it is plain that the elevation cannot be very great. The summit was a plain in the bottom of a crater, containing a large pool of water, then frozen over. The sides of this crater, rising in ridges around this plain, are the most elevated points of Parnassus. The summit therefore strongly resembles that of Kader Idris in Wales. These sides were then a glacier, covered with hard and slippery ice. The atmosphere was clear and cloudless, and the thermometer in the open air fell to two degrees below the freezing point. The prospect was varied, sublime, and extensive: the gulf of Corinth seemed a mere pond, and towards the N., beyond all the plains of Thessaly, appeared majestic Olympus, with its many tops, clad in shining snow, and expanding its vast breadth distinctly to the view. The

logically denominated *Mahadeva Calinga*, which signifies 'the Throne of the Great God.' Hence, such exalted summits are viewed with the deepest veneration by the Hindoos, and they prostrate themselves whenever these salute their eyes. "To the east was the sacred mountain (the Hindoo Olympus) tipped with snow, and called *Calas* or *Mahadeva-Ka-Linga*. Turning his face, our Pundit raised his hands, with the palms placed over his head; then touching his forehead, he suddenly placed them on the ground, and going on his knees, pressed his forehead to the ground. This raising of the hands and prostration of the body and head, was repeated seven times: the other U'niya, less devout, perhaps, contented himself with three salutations and a prayer."—*Asiatic Researches*, vol. xii. p. 420. This summit was at least 80 miles distant. Lofty as Olympus was represented by the poets, yet an altar was erected on its summit, where Jupiter was worshipped. But no such worship could be paid by Hindoos to their mountain-deities enthroned in snow. Their habitation—to use the language of the Chaldeans to Nebuchadnezzar—is not with flesh: for literally speaking no flesh can dwell there. We are told in the Hindoo mythology, that an Indian fakir lost his way in attempting to reach Jumnotree, and began to ascend the mountain where the goddess Jumna dwelt, till he reached the snow, where he heard a voice inquiring what he wanted. On his reply, a mass of snow detached itself from the side of the hill, and the voice desired him to worship where the snow stopped; adding that Jumna was not to be so closely approached or intruded on, in her sacred recesses.—*Frazer's Tour to the Himalaya Mountains*, p. 120.

other mountains of Greece rose in vast heaps, like the surface of the ocean in a rolling calm, according to their different altitudes, but the eye ranged over them all. As a proof that the ascent to the summit is comparatively easy, the peasants conducted the horses of Clarke and his party quite to the frozen pool on the summit. The top and all the higher sides of the mountain are limestone, containing veins of marble, and a great number of imbedded sea-shells. These are found on the highest peak, and over all the mountain. The higher region is bleak, and almost destitute of herbage. The descent on the N.W. side occupied 4½ hours. The people of the plains of Bœotia call the whole mountain *Lakŭră;* but those who reside on it still retain the ancient name, calling the heights by a general appellation *Parnassu*, and one of the ridges in particular *Lugari.* In strictness of speech, Parnassus is not one mountain, but a range of mountains running from N.W. to S.E. where they rise into one great summit. The poetic appellation of the *Biceps Parnassus*, or 'the Double Peaked,' is erroneous, though sanctioned by almost all the classic poets. This appellation properly belongs to two pointed crags, formed by a chasm in a precipice 100 feet high, in the bottom of which is the fount of Castali, towering above and behind Delphi. These being a part of the mountain, have been erroneously considered as the tops of it. They are estimated vaguely by Dr Holland at 800 feet of elevation above the level of Delphi, and 2,000 above the sea. Lucian makes Parnassus higher than Caucasus, and Olympus loftier than both; although Æschylus had previously denominated Caucasus *υψιστον ορος ορων, και μεγιστον ορος ορων*, 'the highest mountain of mountains, and the greatest mountain of mountains.'

Helicon.] The ridge of *Helicon* lies to the S.E. of Parnassus, being separated from it by the plain of Livadia. Its form is remarkably picturesque and graceful, and such as might fit it to the imagination as the abode of the Muses when they quitted the loftier heights of Pindus and Parnassus. It possesses the grandeur of height and steepness; but it is a grandeur softened to the eye by the figure of the cliffs, and intervening hollows,—by the woods which still cover them as in ancient times,—and by the beautiful slopes connecting the cliffs with the subjacent plains. Strabo asserts that Helicon is equal in height and circumference to Parnassus,—an opinion completely erroneous, as the latter is visible from a much greater distance, and its summits are covered with snow for a much longer period in the summer-months. It is honoured with the epithets of *Great* and *Divine* by Hesiod; and Virgil calls it poetically the *Aganippean* and the *Aonian mount,*—the former from the ancient inhabitants of the country. The fountain of *Aganippe*, and the Grove of the Muses, are still recognized in a recess of the mountain near the monastery of St Nicholas. "A more delightful spot is not to be found," says Clarke, "in the romantic passes of Switzerland. It is surrounded on all sides by the mountain: one small opening alone presenting a picturesque view of a ruined tower, upon an eminence in front. The air was filled with spicy odours from numberless aromatic plants covering the soil. A perennial fountain, gushing from the side of a rock, poured down its clear and babbling waters into the rivulet below. A thick grove almost concealed the monastery; and every tree that contributed to its beauty or luxuriance appeared to be the wild and spontaneous produce of the mountain. Nothing interrupted the still silence of this solitude, but the humming of bees, and the sound of falling waters. As we drew near to the fountain, we found it covered with moss and with creep-

ing plants, which spread everywhere their pendent foliage, hanging gracefully from the trees by which it was shaded. Such are the natural beauties of this 'Aonian bower.' The walks about the fountain, winding into the deep solitude of Helicon, are pre-eminently beautiful: all above is grand and striking; and every declivity of the mountain is covered with luxuriant shrubs, or pastured by browsing flocks; whilst the pipe of the shepherd, mingling its sound with that of the bells upon the goats and the sheep, is heard at intervals among the rocks, producing an effect happily adapted to the character and genius of the place. Two miles and a half distant from this, and higher up the mountain, was the fountain *Hippocrene*, fabled to have sprung from the earth, when struck by the hoof of Pegasus, or the winged steed of Bellerophon." Helicon is now called Zagără, from a village of that name, which occupies the site of the ancient *Ascra*, the birth-place of Hesiod, thence denominated the bard of Ascra. The ancient name of the place is still preserved in the modern appellation of this village; for, by a transposition only of the two first letters, *Ascra* becomes *Sacra;* and, though it be commonly written *Sagără*, as the modern name of Helicon, in books of travels, the word is pronounced *Sacra* or *Sackra*. This village lies in a valley of the same name high up the mountain, and surrounded with lofty rugged rocks. Hence it is in summer exposed to the most vehement heats, and in winter to extreme cold, when it is continually covered with snow. In this retreat, Hesiod, the shepherd and poet, fed his flock; and still amidst the rugged rocks surrounding this valley may be seen shepherds guarding their sheep and goats, and piping their tuneful reeds, as when the Muses first vouchsafed to the Ascraean bard their heavenly inspiration. Many fountains and streams are round the village, falling into the river on which it stands, and there are woods near it.

Ossa and Pelion.] The elevation of *Ossa* is computed at 4,000 feet by Holland. Together with Olympus, it forms the narrow valley or defile of Tempe, watered by the Peneus. *Pelion* lies S.E. of Ossa, and fronts the sea. Its sides are still covered, as in ancient times, with pine-forests of venerable growth, springing perhaps from the same soil as those from which the famed ship Argos was built. In conjunction with Ossa, its name is consecrated by other recollections as the region of the Centaurs, and as one of the hills by which the fabled giants meant to climb the heights of Olympus and dethrone the sovereign of the gods. The respective forms of Ossa and Pelion well explain that part of the mythos which supposes the former mountain to have been placed on the latter. Ossa has a steeply conical form, terminating in a point. Pelion, on the other hand, presents a broad and less abrupt outline. As it is seen from the south, two summits appear at a considerable distance from each other with a concavity between them, but so slight as almost to give the effect of a table-mountain, upon which fiction might readily suppose that another hill like Ossa might recline. The trees on the sides of Pelion are chiefly beech, plane, and chesnut, of which these last are said to be remarkable for their size and venerable old age. The philosopher Dicæarchus is said, at the desire of one of the neighbouring princes, to have measured the elevation of Pelion, which he found to be 1,250 geometrical paces, or 6,666 English feet, or within a very little of Olympus, as measured by Xenagoras. We are left in uncertainty as to the base of this measurement; and its elevation is undoubtedly greatly overrated.

Othrys and Œta.] *Othrys* forms the northern boundary of the Sperchius,

and *Mount Œta* the southern limit. Though the former is denominated by Virgil, *Othrym nivalem*, or 'the Snowy Othrys,' there was little or no snow lying upon it in the month of December, when Holland saw it. It is famed in poetic mythology as the abode of Pirithous, king of the Lapithæ, who, aided by the gigantic Hercules, expelled the Centaurs from Pelion. Its elevation is estimated by Holland at not more than 3,000 feet. Mount Œta is a much loftier chain than Othrys; and, stretching from the narrow sea of Eubœa or Negropont on the E., to the Pindus on the W., completely separates Greece Proper from Thessaly.

Rivers.] The *Peneus* is a large stream, originating in a culminating part of the Pindus, where the sources of the Achelous, the Aracthus, the Aous, the Haliacmon, and the Peneus, are only separated from each other by intervening ridges. It is formed by the confluence of two branches; one from the N., and another from the S. The Peneus, while traversing the immense plain of Thessaly, after its escape from the mountains, is increased on the N. by all the streams which descend successively from the southern slopes of Mount *Citius*, now Kralichiovo, of Mount *Pœus*, now Mount Miloni, and *Olympus*, now Olymbo, and Samavat Evi, or 'the Celestial House;' and on the S. by the Enipeus and the Apidanus, descending from the N. side of Mount *Othrys*, now Otridelechi. Before entering the gorge of Tempe, it receives the Titaresius, or *Titaresus* of Homer and Lucan, and the *Eurotas* of Strabo, called by his epitomiser *Europos*, and *Eurotos* by Pliny.[9] The gorge or defile begins at the Khan of Baba, the ancient *Gonnus*, and extends five miles from N.N.W. to S.S.E. The precipitous mountain-cliffs of Ossa and Olympus approach each other so close, that the intervening space does not exceed 200 feet, and in some places may possibly be still less, even so low as 100 feet, according to Ælian; so that the Peneus is reduced to a very small breadth. It enters the sea a few miles beyond the mouth of the defile.—The *Achelous*, now the Aspropotamo, rises in an angle of the Pindus, formed by the divergence of two chains, the western called Moutzraki, and the eastern Agrafa, the ancient Tymphrestus. In this valley it runs a considerable way S.E., and then turning south, it runs in a long and broad valley; the Makronoros or Long Mountain, anciently also called Olympus, forming the western limit, and the Pindus the eastern. The upper part of the course of this river contained the ancient *Athamania*, and the lower Ætolia. It enters the gulf of Corinth between the mouths of the *Inachus*, now Louro, and the *Evenus*, now Fidari. The tract immediately to the south of the gulf of Arta, extending S.E. and E. to the Makronoros, and the mouth of the Achelous, was the ancient Acarnania. South of the Peneus, on the eastern coast, is the *Sperchius*, now the Hellada. Though inferior to the Peneus, it is still one of the most considerable rivers of Greece, and waters a large and fertile plain. Its source is parted from the upper part of the course of the Achelous, by Mount Tymphrestus or Agrafa. It received its modern name of Hellada in the days of Manuel Paleologus. It enters the Maliac gulf to the south of Zeitun.

Climate and Productions.] We have already, in our introductory chapters to European Turkey, adverted generally to the climate and productions of that portion of the empire usually called Greece. The following details seem appropriate to this place. In many districts of Greece,

[9] All these variations in the orthography of the stream are owing to transcribers probably.

laurels, roses, and myrtles cover the plains, and during summer fill the dry-beds of the winter-torrents. The culture of the olive is still, as it was with the ancient Greeks, an object of general importance in this country. There are 9 species of olives, of which the *matoulia* is considered the best. The vine is also extensively cultivated in Greece; and many delicious wines are made in the islands of the Archipelago. The Corinthian grape, as it is called, produces admirable raisins; the raisins of Elis, Messenia, and Laconia are likewise much esteemed. The citron of Parga, the lemon of Achaia, the oranges of Arta, the almonds of Egina, and the figs of the Peloponnesus, are fine fruits; and the banana, and sugar-cane, and other plants of tropical climates, are occasionally cultivated here. Cotton might be made a considerable article of produce in Greece; at present the culture of it is almost confined to districts still under Turkish domination. The cantons of Nauplia, Argos, and Gastouni in the Morea, produced, before the breaking out of the war, a very considerable quantity of this article. The Grecian flora is very rich. A great number of aquatic birds and birds of passage are found in Greece. Stags, wolves, lynxes, and foxes, inhabit the recesses of the forests.

Trade and Commerce.] Greece has been so long subjected to the yoke of a semi-barbarous nation, that it has made little progress in the mechanical arts. In the Morea a few coarse linen and cotton-stuffs are manufactured; in the islands, fine silks, gauzes, and morocco are produced. The islands excel all the rest of Greece in mechanical skill and industry in consequence of their more frequent intercourse with foreigners; the Morea also in this respect surpasses the rest of continental Greece, in which little industry yet exists. According to M. F. Beaujour, the total importations into Greece from 1787 to 1797, amounted to 9,940,000 francs, and the exportations to 17,543,520. In 1812, M. Pouqueville, estimated the importations into Greece Proper at 6,167,000 piastres, and the exportations at 6,505,641. This commerce was of course almost annihilated during the revolutionary struggle. Previous to the establishment of the Ionian republic under the auspices of England, the French engrossed the principal portions of the Greek trade; but it has now fallen into the hands of English merchants. In 1813 M. Pouqueville estimated the mercantile marine of Greece at 448 vessels, amounting to 2,575 tons of shipping, and manned by 13,161 sailors. The productions of the Morea adapted for the English market are very considerable; but there is yet no good market there for any quantity of British goods. Currants, fustic, cotton, olive-oil, valonia, dried fruits, gums, galls, and a variety of drugs form the principal articles of export. Turkish measures and coins are still used throughout Greece; but the government has recently caused coin of three denominations to be struck. The copper-money has the name ægis given to it; 600 ægides are equal to a Minerva, which is a silver coin; there is also another silver coin called a Five Phœnix piece, of the same value as the Minerva.

Government.] The political state of Greece is not easily conveyed to the mind of a foreigner. The primates lean to oligarchy or Turkish principles of government; the capitani profess democratical notions. The first sultans who conquered Acarnania, Epirus, and Albania, were constrained, in order to secure the possession of these provinces, to grant their inhabitants several privileges. Mount Agrafa, the natural bulwark of Epirus, was the first country that obtained by treaty the privilege of having a captain and a body of soldiers for the maintenance of good order.

The example of Agrafa was followed by all the provinces of continental Greece, from Albania to Macedonia, by the Peloponnesus and Eubœa. These commissioned leaders were called *armatoles* by the Turks, and *captains* by their countrymen. There were also military chiefs, who were not acknowledged by the government, who were considered as leaders of banditti. But all these leaders were united by the tie of common defence, and often made head against the pashas; and to them numerous bands of Mahommedans frequently joined themselves. Thus the principles of a wild liberty have all along prevailed in Greece, but those of civil liberty are beginning to be duly appreciated and followed. In May 1827 a new constitution for Greece was proclaimed at Trezene. By this decree the sovereignty of the people is acknowledged as the fundamental law of the State; the equality of all Greek citizens in the eyes of the law, religious toleration, the division of power between the senate or body of representatives as the legislative body, and the president and judiciary body as the executive, are also recognised. The members of the senate are to be elected every three years by the people, and to sit in session during 4 or 5 months of every year. The president, whose person is inviolable, is elected for 7 years, and it will be his duty to sanction and promulgate the laws. The country is to be divided into provinces or *eparchies;* and all the provinces or districts which have taken up arms against the Turks, are to be accounted eparchies of the republic. Two or more eparchies are to form a *theme*, the administration of which is to be conducted by 2 or more prefects, according to the number of eparchies. In the communes a *demogoronte* is to preside over every 100 families. The Greek religion is declared to be the religion of the State, and the married priests or presbyters are to have a right of voting at elections; but the clergy are not to hold any office under government. The present president of the Greek republic is Count Capo d'Istria.

Military and Marine Force.] The army of the Greeks in 1820 was estimated at 50,000 men, forming brave but irregular troops, and commanded by skilful generals. Unfortunately the capitani have no fixed pay, but pay themselves extravagantly by making returns of many hundred soldiers beyond the real number. Hence the government never knows exactly the number of troops it can bring into the field; and it is very probable that at this moment the whole real military force of Greece does not exceed 15,000 men. The Greek navy is of the same character as the army. It is composed chiefly of merchant brigs from Hydra, Spezzia, and Ipsara, and amounts to about 80 sail. It has usually gained the mastery over the Turkish fleet by superior seamanship and tactics; but it is always with the concurrence, not through the obedience of the crew, that a Greek captain accomplishes his object. The exertions of the Greek admirals, and brulotiers or captains of fire-ships, during the revolutionary war, are above all praise.

I. THESSALY.

Thessaly anciently comprehended Dolopia, Agraida, Ænania, Hestiotida, Thessaly Proper, Palasgiotida, Pieria, Magnesia, and Phthiotida. Separated from Macedonia by the ridge of Volutza, a branch of Olympus, and mounts Pœus and Cietius, Thessaly forms a circular basin of more than 50 miles diameter, every where inclosed by mountains, and next in fertility to Macedonia. All its waters are drained off by the Peneus.

The deep ravine of Tempe, formed by precipitous cliffs 800 feet high on the side of Olympus, affords a passage for this river to the sea on the E. The scenery of this defile is much more grand than beautiful. The rocks of bluish grey marble have a shattered appearance, and are covered with trees and shrubs wherever the surface permits it. Some of the ancients believed that this ravine was formed by an earthquake. Were any natural convulsion to close it up, a great inland lake would be the effect. Xerxes, when he invaded Greece, threatened the Thessalians with this catastrophe if they opposed him. South of Thessaly, is the narrow defile of Thermopylæ, running between the flank of Mount Œta and the sea. The part of this space nearest the sea is occupied by a marsh, between which and the cliffs, the breadth of firm land is still about 300 feet, as mentioned by Livy. The hot springs, whence the pass derived its name of *Thermopylæ*, or 'the Pass of the Warm Springs,' the remains of the wall built by the Phocians, and a tumulus justly believed to be that of the Spartans, who fell with their brave leader Leonidas, are still to be seen.

History.] When Inachus led his colony into the mountainous parts of this district, its basin is said to have presented only the appearance of a vast lake. These waters it was reported by tradition, afterwards formed an outlet between Mount Olympus and Mount Ossa. Thessaly may be regarded as one of the principal father-lands of the Greek people. From it proceeded the Achaians, the Eolians, the Dorians, the Macedonians, and many other tribes. After the fall of Perseus, this country became a province of the Roman empire; during the reign of the Cæsars at Byzantium, it formed the 17th *theme* of the empire. It was ravaged during the middle ages by the barbarians and the soldiers of the marquis of Montferrat, and finally transformed by the Turks into the sandshak of Tricala-Valessi.

Principal Towns, &c.] Malacassi, on the southern side of Mount Zygos, near the sources of the Cachia, has a population of 2,000 souls. The canton of Malacassi has a population of about 6,500 souls, of whom 3,000 are of Vlaquish origin.—Chaliki, under Mount Cacardista, is a small village, supposed by Pouqueville to be founded on the ancient site of *Chalcis* or *Dolopes*.—Cardiki, is the chief town of the canton of Aspropotamos, which includes nearly the whole eastern part of Mount Djoumerca. This mount forms with the principal chain of Pindus, the delightful valley of the Achelous.—The neighbouring canton of Palœochori is supposed by some to have been the ancient country of the Eurytanes.—The canton of Agrapha to the E. of the Achelous, anciently formed the eastern part of Agraida.—Patradjik, or *Neæ Patræ*, is a town of 3,000 souls, situated a little to the S. of the Sperchius. The canton itself occupies nearly the whole vale of Sperchius, between Mount Delacha and the chain of Œta. The ruins of the ancient *Hypata* are seen here on the northern bank of the Hellada.—The canton of Thaumaco is bounded on the E. by the teritory of Armyros, and comprehends nearly all the chain of Delacha.—Armyros includes the valley of Amphryssa, in which the Grecian Thebes once stood. This district stretches along the great road encompassing the gulf of Volo.—Volos, about half a league distant from the port of Volos, is supposed to be the ancient *Pegasa*. The canton of Volos, comprehends two-thirds of the Pegasetic gulf, or the gulf of Volo as it is now called, which is bordered by the wood-crowned ridges of Mount Zagora. The population of this canton is entirely Grecian. The district of Zagora lies upon the eastern side of Mount Pelion.—Carlar, the chief town of the

canton of Velestina, was the birth-place of the patriotic but unfortunate Riga —Agia is a pretty little industrious town on the lake of Carla.—Pharsalia is situated in a plain watered by the Sataldje-Potamos, the ancient *Apidanus*. The walls of the ancient city are yet traceable.—Larissa, the capital of all Thessaly, is a large and populous town on the Peneus. It contains, according to Holland, 4,000 houses, and 20,000 inhabitants; but, according to Clarke, 7,000 houses, and 30.000 inhabitants. Its external appearance is mean and dirty. There were two cities called *Larissa*,—the one on the Peneus, and another in that division of Thessaly called Pthiotis: the latter of which is generally believed, on the authority of the poets, to be the birth-place of Achilles, who was hence denominated *Larissæus Achilles*. It was situated two or three miles from the shore of the Maliac gulf, and called *Larissa Cremaste*, from its being, as it were, suspended on a rock; and *Pelasgicon Argos*, to distinguish it from the citadel of Argos in Peloponnesus, also called Larissa. Achilles' territory, as we are informed by Homer, extended along the coast to the head of the Maliac gulf and the banks of the Sperchius, comprising the wide and fertile plains that intervene between the mountain-chain of Othry and Œta.—Ambelskia is a small town agreeably situated at the entrance of the vale of Tempe, on the western side of Mount Kissovo.—Plata-Mona is situated on the seacoast at the extremity of Tempe.

Vale and Defile of Tempe.] According to Clarke, the defile of Tempe[9] resembles the pass of Killycrankie among the Grampians, and that of Dovedale in Derbyshire; but it is upon a much grander scale: for Olympus on the left, and Ossa on the right, form its two sides, and seem as if they had been separated from each other by a tremendous convulsion of nature, the Peneus being left to flow through the cleft. The scenery exactly answers the description of Livy,—naked perpendicular rocks, rising to a prodigious height, so that the spectator cannot look up from below without a sensation of giddiness,—"Terret et sonitus et altitudo per mediam vallem fluentis Penei amnis," says the historian. The various colours which adorn the surfaces of these rocks can only be expressed by painting; "and how beautiful," says Clarke, "would be the effect, if all these masses were faithfully delineated, in all their distinct or blended hues of ashen grey, and green, and white, and ochreous red and brown, and black and yellow." The length of the vale is about 3 miles, its greatest breadth 2½. "It is

[10] It is somewhat extraordinary that, though the defile and the vale still retain their ancient appellation with a very slight alteration, its present name being pronounced *Tembi*, in Romaic, yet the situation of Tempe was not so much as known to modern geographers; and even a Pocock, a Busching, and a Cellarius, called its very existence in question. It must be observed, that there were several Tempes mentioned by the poets, *Cycneia Tempe* in Bœotia, was called *Theumesia Tempe*, by Statius. Theb. 1.486. There was another Tempe in Sicilia, called by Ovid, *Heloria Tempe*. Fast. 4—475. The Cyeneian Tempe was so denominated from the fable of Cycnus, being changed into a swan; and Theumesia from the mountain Theumesus. But the Tempe usually meant by the poets was the Tempe between Olympus and Ossa; and both Horace and Ovid distinguish it from the others by calling it *Thessala Tempe*.---Met. Lib. vii. p. 169—222. Od. Lib. i. Od. 7—4. In Virgil's fourth Georgic, l. 317, we have *Peneia Tempe*; and in Theocritus, we read of the beautiful Tempe beside the Peneus; and Catullus writes;

Viridantia Tempe
Tempe, quæ sylvæ cingunt superimpendentes.

These descriptions all concur in describing Tempe as being in Thessaly near the Peneus; and combined with those of Pliny, Ælian, and Livy, as a narrow, beautiful, wooded, rocky glen, with a sounding river flowing through the bottom between steep and lofty banks, along which there was a narrow difficult pass, render it surprising how it could have been mistaken, or that its site could not have been recognized by modern geographers.

necessary to distinguish," says Walpole, in the MS. journal of his travels, "between the defile of Tempe and the valley of Tempe. Respecting the first, the Peneus flows for three or four miles through a gorge between the mountains Olympus and Ossa, which rise on one side of it almost perpendicularly; on the other they afford space for a narrow road formed in the rock, running along the river side." Some of the mountains in Borrowdale by Keswick, resemble those in the defile of Tempe, both in shape and in their wild and barren aspect. The manner in which the rocks at Matlock rise from the border of the river reminds us of those at Tempe. But to make the resemblance more striking, nothing but the grey limestone should be seen, divested of all the verdure with which the oak and mountain-ash adorn them; and they should rise to a greater height. The defile of Tempe could never have been represented by the ancients as picturesque or beautiful. Livy, speaking of the lofty mountains there, uses these words: "Montes ita utrinque abscissi, ut vix despici sine vertigine quadam simul oculorum animique possint." Pliny's words are not not quite so strong; "Ultra visum hominis se attollere dextraque lævaque leniter convexa juga."

II. LIVADIA.

Whilst the plains of Thessaly present to the eye of the traveller the appearance of the basin of a vast dried up lake, Livadia exhibits in its extraordinary counter-forts, its peaked rocks, and its abrupt declivities, an agglomeration of islands from which the ocean has retreated. Immediately south of the pass of Thermopylæ, which is 5 miles long, is Phocis, one of the most rugged tracts in Greece, almost wholly composed of the declivities and branches of mounts Œta, Parnassus, and Helicon. S.E. of Thermopylæ, were the *Locri Opuntii* and the *Locri Epicnemmidii*. The latter of these were so called from the mountain Cnemis; and the former who were separated from Doris by the river Pindus, from their chief city Opus, near the channel of the Euripus. W. of Phocis were the *Locri Ozolæ*. These last, from their western situation, as separated from the other Locrians by the whole of Phocis, were also denominated *Locri Zephyrii*, and extending themselves from Naupactus, now Lepanto, eastward, along the sea-coast, about 200 stadia, or 24 miles, to Phocis, and 12 miles inland. To the N.W. of Phocis lay Doris, between the river Pindus and the upper course of the Cephisus, having the Achelous on the W.—Bœotia is a large circular valley, inclosed by Parnassus on the W., Helicon on the S., Cithæron on the E., and a range of high lands on the N. It is divided into two by a low range running N. and S. The lake Copais, which occupies the western and larger division—receiving all its rivers—sends off its waters by subterraneous passages to the sea on the N.E. In summer this lake has the appearance of a green meadow covered with reeds. Bœotia has more than once been inundated by obstructions in these subterraneous channels. It is very fertile but higher and colder than Attica. Thick fogs frequently overspread the country, and the abundance of its marshes generate malaria. Attica, adjoining to it on the E. is comparatively barren and arid, more hilly than mountainous, but distinguished by the dryness and elasticity of its atmosphere, and the beauty and serenity of its climate. The isthmus of Corinth, connecting Attica with the Peloponnesus, is occupied on the N. side by high rocky hills, which render it strong as a military post; but on the S. side the surface is low, seldom

rising above 150 feet, and about 4 miles in breadth. On the W. Greece has a different physical aspect from that of the E.: Ætolia and Acarnania present none of those circular basins so peculiar to the E. and S. of Greece, except the valley encompassing the gulf of Arta. The two former consist of long valleys opening to the S. and narrowing gradually to the N.

Chief Towns, &c.] Zjeitouni is a trading town situated on the great road by Thermopylæ along the coast to Talantia. The canton of Boudounitza on the eastern side of Mount Œta, comprehends a part of Phocis. The canton of Salona or *Amphissa* is bounded by the chain of Parnassus. The canton of Lidoriki includes the valley of the Cephisus and the western chain of Oeta.—The town of Livadia to the N.W. of the lake of Topoliar, has a population of 4000 souls; the canton comprehends ancient Bœotia. The ancient Thebes is now a wretched town in the midst of a marshy country, inhabited by about 2500 Turks and Greeks.—All these towns and districts were comprehended in the Turkish sandshak of Negropont, and likewise the district of Attica with its celebrated capital, to a detailed description of which we now proceed.

City of Athens.] Athens, the most celebrated city of antiquity, was founded by Cecrops. After a brilliant epoch of freedom, she yielded with the rest of Greece to the sway of the Macedonian Philip. When the Roman armies entered Greece, Athens was besieged and taken by Sylla. During the reign of Adrian she recovered a large part of her ancient prosperity; but Alaric swept over her in his devastating path and left her almost a heap of ruins. In 1455 Athens fell under the Turkish dominion. Previous to the revolution its inhabitants amounted to about 12,000, of whom three-fourths were Greeks. It is now called *Athini*. It enjoys a fine temperature and a serene sky. The air is clear and wholesome; though not so delicately soft as in Ionia. The town stands beneath the acropolis or citadel,—not encompassing the rock as formerly, but spreading into the plain, chiefly on the W. and N.W. The city of Cecrops is now a fortress, with a thick irregular wall, about 3 miles in circumference and 10 feet high, standing on the brink of precipices, and enclosing an area about twice as long as broad. Some portions of the ancient wall may be discovered on the outside, particularly at the two extreme angles; and in many places it is patched with pieces of columns, and with marbles taken from the ruins. The S. side of the Acropolis is wholly uninhabited. The number of houses in the other quarters is about 1,300. Maritime Athens in the most flourishing times of the republic, comprised 3 ports, forming a continued town more extensive than Athens itself. The *1st* of these was the Peiræus, now called by the Turks *Aslan Limani*, by the Greeks *Drakon*, and by the Italians *Porte Leone*. The *2d* was the Mynychia, a circular harbour to the E., now called *Stratioliki*. The *3d* was *Phalerum*, the most eastern and the most ancient of the three ports. In the second year of the Peloponnesian war the Peiræus was fortified as a closed port, with a wall somewhat more than 6½ miles in length, and 60 feet in height; and was likewise connected with the city by what was called 'the Long Walls,' which extended from the city on the N. to Peiræus, and on the S. to Phalerum,—a distance of 5 miles. These walls seem to have run parallel to each other at a distance of 550 feet, forming a broad street from the centre of the Phaleric hill, in the direction of the entrance of the Acropolis. The circumference of the whole walls, including those of the ports and city, and the long walls, has been estimated at 20 miles. A mile and



a quarter to the N. is the hill of Colonis, upon which stood a temple of the Eumenides. At its foot, but nearer the city, was the site of the Academy. More easterly on the N. rises a hill supposed to be the Anchesmus of the ancients. Immediately below it was the Cynosages. Beyond, to the S.E., was the Lycæum; and to the S. was the Stadium, now a cotton-field. The range of Hymettus flanks it on the E. We subjoin in a note a description of the antiquities of Athens; taken from Dr Chandler's topographical examination of the city in 1764, and later authorites.[11]

[11] The citadel or *Acropolis* was filled in ancient times with monuments of Athenian glory, and exhibited an amazing display of beauty, opulence, and art. The curiosities of various kinds, with the pictures, statues, and pieces of sculpture, were so many and so remarkable as to supply Ptolemy Periegetes with matter for four volumes; and Strabo affirms, that as many would be required in treating of other portions of Athens and Attica. In particular, the number of statues was prodigious. Tiberius Nero, who was fond of images, plundered the Acropolis, as well as the Delphi and Olympia; yet Athens, and each of these places, had not fewer than 3000 remaining in the time of Pliny. The Acropolis has now, as formerly, only one entrance, which fronts the Peiræus.—The ascent is by a single path, which leads directly to the *Propyléa*. This was one of the structures of Pericles, who began it when Euthymenes was archon, 435 B.C. It was completed in five years, at the expense of 2,012 talents, or £452,700,—a sum exceeding the annual revenue of the Republic. It was of marble, of the Doric order; and the whole building received its name from its forming a vestibule to the five doors by which the citadel was entered, and which still exist. The W. end of the Acropolis presented a frontage of 168 feet. In front of the right or southern wing of the Propyléa was the *Temple of Victory*. In the left wing of the Propyléa, and fronting the Temple of Victory, was a building decorated with paintings by Polygnotus, of which an account is given by Pausanias. The interval between Pericles and Pausanias consists of several centuries: the Propyléa remained entire in the time of this topographer; and continued nearly so to a much later period. It had then a roof of white marble, which was unsurpassed in the size of the stones and the beauty of their arrangement. Before each wing Pausanias observed an equestrian statue; they are conjectured to have been those of Marcus Agrippa, and Caius Cæsar Octavianus. The Propyléa has ceased to be the entrance of the Acropolis. The passage, which was between the columns in the centre, is walled up almost to their capitals, and above is a battery of cannon. The roof of the Propyléa, after standing above 2000 years, was probably destroyed, with all the pediments, by the Venetians in 1687, when they battered the castle in front with red-hot bullets, and took it; they were however compelled to resign it again to the Turks in the following year.—But the chief ornament of the Acropolis, was the *Parthenon*, or the temple of the Virgin Minerva, a most superb and magnificent fabric. The Persians had burned the edifice which before occupied the site of this building, and was called *Hecatompedon*, from its being 100 feet square; but the zeal of Pericles and his Athenians was exerted in providing a more ample and glorious residence for their favourite goddess. The architects were Callicrates and Ictinus; the latter of whom, assisted by Corpion, wrote a treatise on the building. The Parthenon was so far elevated above the entrance of the Acropolis, that the pavement of its peristyle was on the same level with the capitals on the eastern portico of the Propyléa. The Parthenon was a peripteral octostyle of the Doric order, with 17 columns on the sides, each 6 feet 2 inches in diameter at the base, and 34 feet high, raised on 3 steps. Within the peristyle, at each end, stood 6 columns, each 5½ feet in diameter, forming a vestibule to the cell. This vestibule was ascended by two steps from the peristyle. The cell was divided into two chambers, each 62 feet 6 inches broad; the western or Opisthodomos being 43 feet 10 inches in length, and the eastern 98 feet 7 inches. Four columns, each 4 feet in diameter, supported the ceiling of the former; and 16 columns, each 3 feet in diameter, that of the latter. The dimensions of the whole temple were 228 feet by 102; and the height to the top of the pediment 66 feet. In the pediments were two compositions, each nearly 80 feet in length, and each consisting of about 20 colossal figures. Fragments of these pediments are preserved in the British Museum. The frize contained a representation of the Panathenaic procession, as advancing in two parallel columns from W. to E. on each side of the temple, and, after turning the angles at the eastern front, meeting towards its centre. Of the 92 metopes in the frize of the peristyle, 15 of the southern side are now in the British Museum: each of these contains a centaur. In the Opisthodomos stood a colossal ivory statue of Minerva, made for this temple by Phidias, and 26 cubits, or 39 feet high. It was decorated with pure gold, to the amount of 40 talents or £123,500. The goddess was represented standing, with her vestment reaching to her feet. Her helmet had a sphinx for the crest, and on the sides were griffins. The head of Medusa was on her breastplate. In one hand she held her spear, and in the other supported an image of Victory about 6 feet high. The battle of the Centaurs and Lapithæ was carved on her sandals; and on

Missolonghi.] Missolonghi is a fortified town on the gulf of Lepanto. The various fortunes of this fortress, and the great carnage which has taken place in attacking or defending it since the commencement of the Greek war, show the consequence which both the contending parties have attached to its possession. It was taken from the Turks towards the end of 1821. It was defended in the following year by Prince Mavrocordato against a large Turkish force, which was finally obliged to raise the siege and retreat in disorder. Having remained in undisturbed occupation of the Greeks for more than a year, it became the seat of government for Western Greece, and received within its walls that extraordinary apostle and martyr of the Greek cause Lord Byron, who conferred upon it additional renown by his death, in the spring of 1824. Some month's after his Lordship's death, the siege of the fortress was renewed by the Turks, who assembled round its walls a large force from Albania. The siege was prolonged by the obstinate resistance of the Greeks for more than a year, and the place was not taken till after the arrival of a body of Egyptians under Ibrahim Pasha, in the end of 1825.—It was subsequently recaptured by the Greeks.

CHAP. XIII.—THE PELOPONNESUS OR MOREA.

Name.] The Morea, the country of Nestor and Leonidas, of Philopœmen and Aratus, has borne a variety of names, on the origin of all of which we need not here enter. It received the name of *Peloponnesus* from Pelops, the son of Tantalus king of Phrygia. M. Pouqueville contends that the appellation *Morea* was derived from *Oræa*, 'the beautiful;' but the more

her ægis or shield—which lay at her feet—the war of the gods and giants, and the battle of the Athenians and Amazons. The cost of the whole temple, exclusive of the gold, has been estimated at £1,500,000. The Parthenon remained entire for many ages after it was deprived of its goddess. The Christians converted it into a church, and the Mahommedans into a mosque. It is mentioned in the letters of Crussius, who miscalled it the Pantheon, 'the temple of the unknown God.' The Venetians, under Koningsmark, when they besieged the Acropolis in 1687, threw a bomb which demolished the roof, and, setting fire to some powder, did much damage to the fabric. This was the sad forerunner of farther destruction.—To the N. of the Parthenon, at the distance of 160 feet, stood the *Erechtheium.* This building was double,—a partition wall dividing it into two temples which fronted different ways. One was the temple of Pandrosus, the other of Minerva Polias. The latter was entered by a square portico connected with a marble screen which fronted towards the Propylea. The door of the cell was on the left hand; and at the farther end of the passage was a door leading down into the Pandroseium. The proportions of the Erechtheium were small, being only 63 feet by 36, and not 20 in height. The Pandroseium was a small but very singular building, of which no satisfactory idea can be conveyed by description. The entablature was supported by Caryatides, one of which is now in the British Museum.—Without the Peiraic gate was a cenotaph to Euripides; immediately within it stood the *Pompeion,*—a building set apart for the arrangement of processions. To the right was placed the *Pnyx,*—a place in which certain popular assemblies were held; the road continued on till it passed the *Stoa Basileius,* in which the archon held his court. Hence the street of Hermæ terminated in a Stoa named *Pœcile* from its pictures. The *Agora,* planted with plane-trees, and divided into markets and streets, fronted the Pœcile. The *Areopagus* or Hill of Mars—so called because Mars was the first person here tried,—sloped down from it towards the N., to a plainer site, on which stood the temple of Theseus. The *Theseium* still existing is a peripteral hexastyle, with 13 columns on the sides. The cell is 40 feet in length and 20 in breadth; the order is Doric. It is formed entirely of Pentelic marble, and seems to have suggested the model of the Parthenon. To the S.E. of the Agora stood the *Prytaneium* or senate-house. After passing through a gateway, erected by Hadrian in the modern walls, the *Temple of Jupiter Olympus* appears. It contained a colossal ivory and gold statue of the god. The whole length of the sacred precinct was 689 feet. The temple was decastyle, and consisted of 121 columns, of which only 16 are now standing.

common opinion is that this country derived its name from the great number of mulberry-trees which are found in it. It is true that the exotic species of mulberry which composes one branch of the riches of the Morea is vulgarly called in the present day *sycaminos*, although this name was certainly applied in ancient times to the sycamore; but the indigenous or black mulberry (*Rubus sylvestris*, L.) is nowhere more common than here, and has certainly given its name to the country.

Boundaries and Extent.] The Morea is situated between 36° 29′ and 38° 30′ of N. Lat., and between 21° 30′ and 23° 32′ of E. Long. It is bounded on the N. by the gulf of Lepanto; on the E. by that part of the Ægean called the sea of Myrtos; on the S. by the Mediterranean; and on the W. by the Adriatic. Its greatest length is from N.W. to S.E., that is from cape Papas or *Palée* to cape Malos or Saint Angelo; its greatest breadth, from Modon on the S.W. to cape Franco or *Speree* on the N.E. The configuration of its coasts presents the form of a platana-leaf of which the petiole is the isthmus of Corinth. Following the irregular outline formed by its numerous gulfs and bays, we trace a circumference of 200 leagues, inclosing an area of 8,950 English square miles, with a population according to Pouqueville of 240,000 Greeks (including 60,000 Mainottes), 40,000 Turks, and 4,000 Jews; but this, and every other calculation respecting the population of Greece is merely approximative, and may be very incorrect, especially after the events of the revolutionary war, by which the Turkish population has been expelled.

Mountains.] The Morea, like the rest of Greece, presents numerous distinct mountain-ridges of which mount Zeria or Trikala, the ancient *Cyllene*, may be regarded as the culminating point, and in Dr Holland's opinion, is one of the loftiest ridges in Greece. It surrounds the famous lake *Stymphale*, the scene of one of Hercules's exploits. Arcadia is a lofty central platform in the Morea, supported by mountain-buttresses. The mountains of Lycæus and Menalus, upon which Apollo mourned the loss of Daphnis, form one of the principal plateaus of Arcadia. They are covered with magnificent trees, amongst which the oak is remarkable for the extraordinary height to which it attains, and the Andrachne for its polished trunk. Mount *Olenos* runs out to the N.W. and terminates in the triple rock of Santa-Mari; its branches, mounts Erymanthos and Philœ are covered with shady forests, and its permanent snows give birth to the river Vostitza, the ancient *Jomenus*. Mount *Taygetus*, a very lofty and magnificent range, runs along the western flank of the Vassili-Potamos or *Eurotas* river, and terminates at cape Matapan. A range of mountains to the right of Zeria, including mounts Polyphurgos, Stephanos, and Sophico form the ancient territory of Argolis. These mountains are everywhere traversed by narrow defiles impracticable to artillery or cavalry. Mount *Geranion* is a range running across the isthmus of Corinth and rising to the height of 2,500 feet. The valleys of the Morea are immense basins surrounded by the mountains, exhibiting the appearance of a great number of distinct craters, each containing a spacious level area fitted for the abode of a separate community. This feature of the Morea led Dr Clarke to compare its surface to a number of saucers with broken lips, placed together on a table. There are no Greek or Roman roads perceivable in the Morea, but only Turkish causeways about two feet and a half in breadth leading over the low marshy spots; these are thought sufficient for the horses of the soldiery and the asses of the peasantry, who seldom use any wheel carriages.

Rivers.] Of the waters which descend from the mountains of the Morea, some precipitate themselves into the gulf of Lepanto and the Ionian sea, and others into the Mediterranean and Ægean. The northern valley are watered by the Calavrita or *Cerynite*, the Acrato-Potamos or *Crathis*, and the Mauroneso or *Styx*. Several marshes adapted to the cultivation of rice are found among the surrounding mountains. The Acrato-Potamos descends from the mountain of the same name; in winter its waters present a very formidable torrent. The Mauroneso descends in a series of cataracts from the most elevated and abrupt plateau of Cyllene. The Camenitza or Melas flows through a beautiful valley into the gulf of Patras. The Potami-Ton-Gastounion or *Penoe Eleen* descends from the southern declivity of Olenos, and flows towards the Mediterranean through a country highly fertile in lint. The Roufias, the amorous *Alpheus* of the ancients, separates the canton of Gastouni the ancient Phocis, from that of Fanari the northern point of old Messenia. This river is formed by the confluence of three streams coming from Arcadia. The Vassili-Potamos, whose waters are fabled to have borne Leda's swan, flows from the N. towards the S. with an inclination eastwards to the gulf of Colocynthia.

Productions.] The Morea is the most fertile province of Greece. Its productions are oil, rye, honey, wax, raisins, gall-nuts, cotton, kermes, tobacco, silk, wool, and lint. Its pasture-lands are excellent, and the shepherds of Arcadia still keep watch over beautiful flocks. The fisheries too on the coast are well-conducted, and salted fish forms a principal article of exportation.

Topography.] The Morea is divided into four provinces, Chiarenza, Belvidere, Tzakonia, and Romania Major.—Chiarenza includes all Achaia Propria: its principal towns are Caminitza, Triti, and Saraoalle all very small places.—Belvidere comprises within its limits the ancient Elis and Messenia. The principal towns in this province are Chiarenza, (the ancient Cylene) Gastouni, a thriving town with a castle and about 3,000 inhabitants; Caliva, the ancient Elis; Belvidere, a considerable town and delightfully situated; Arcadia, situated on a bay of the same name.—The town and harbour of Navarino lying at the S.W. corner of the Morea. It is of a circular form, with an island lying across the mouth of it. The entrance is by the S. end of the island, where the passage is 600 yards wide. The island is 2 miles long and a quarter of a mile broad. The basin is 6 miles in circumference. The port of Navarino is the ancient harbour of *Pylus*. In the 7th year of the Peloponnesian war, Demosthenes, the Athenian general, seized and fortified Pylus. A Spartan army immediately besieged him there, and part of them passed over to the island, then called *Sphacteria*, for the purpose of completely blockading him, while the fleet watched the entrances of the harbour. An Athenian fleet, at last, entering the harbour, by both mouths, attacked the Spartan fleet lying within, and destroyed the whole of it. The Spartans on the island being cut off from all assistance, surrendered prisoners at discretion to the Athenians. The battle here betwixt the Turkish and combined fleets of Britain, France, and Russia, was fought on the anniversary of the great battle of Salamis, wherein the Greeks defeated the Persian fleet,—the 20th of October, 480, B.C. 2306 years before.—Modon, the ancient Methone, is a fortified town with a good harbour and some trade.—Coron, situated near the gulf of the same name, is a small but well-fortified place, and the see of an archbishop.—Calamatia is a considerable but open town.—The

province of Tzakonia includes the ancient Arcadia and Laconia: its principal towns are the following—Misitra, in the vicinity of which are the ruins of the ancient Sparta, is delightfully situated at the foot of mount Taygetus, and is defended by a castle. It contains a celebrated church and is the see of an archbishop—population about 4,000.—Malvasia-Vecchia or Malvasia is a small town situated on an island connected with the continent by a bridge, and protected by a strong citadel. The neighbourhood of this place produces the celebrated wine called Malvoisia or Malmsey.—Maina is the capital of a district of the same name lying N. of cape Matapan, and inhabited by the warlike race called Mainotes, by some supposed to be the descendants of the Spartans; it is more probable, however, that they are sprung from some Sclavonian tribe.—Tripolitza, formerly the capital of the Morea, is situated in a narrow valley at the foot of mount Mænalus, and is fortified with a stone wall and a small square fort. The houses are very mean, and the streets, with the exception of the principal one, very dirty, and paved only in the middle. It has an inconsiderable trade in corn and wool, and contained previous to the revolution about 12,000 inhabitants.—The province of Romania Major comprehends the ancient Corinth, Sicyon, and Argos; the following are its principal towns.—Corinth, situated near the isthmus to which it gives name, on the northern declivity of mount Phouka, and looking down on the gulf of Lepanto, was anciently one of the most powerful and magnificent cities of Greece, richly adorned with splendid structures, from the style of which one of the orders of architecture takes its name. The ancient walls, in circuit about two miles, can still be traced, but the most interesting monument of antiquity remaining is the citadel, or *Acro-Corinthos.*—Corinth is now but a small town containing about 2,000 inhabitants. The houses however are commodious and well built, particularly those in the market-place. Anciently it had two harbours, one on the gulf of Corinth or Lepanto, the other on the Egean sea. The former is still the principal port, the other anciently called *Cenchrea* is now little frequented. Corinth is the seat of a metropolitan and a bishop. It is 48 miles S.W. of Athens.—Patras is a seaport town situated on a pleasant eminence at the entrance of the gulf of Lepanto. It is well situated for commerce, being a central station for the coast of Livadia, the Ionian isles, and the northern part of the Morea. It carries on a considerable trade in currants, oil, wine, honey, wax, silk, and skins,—and consuls reside here from the principal maritime states in Europe. It is the see of an archbishop, and was said to contain previous to the revolution about 4,000 inhabitants.—Napoli di Romania or Nauplia, the modern capital of the Morea. was built by Nauplias the son of Neptune and Amymone. The remains of its ancient walls still exist, also the temple of Neptune, the port, and the fount Canathus. It is the best built town in the Morea, has a spacious and secure harbour, and is strongly fortified. It had a population of about 6,000, chiefly Turks, but these last having lately been expelled by the Greeks, its present population like that of all the other Greek towns is quite uncertain. It is the see of an archbishop, and conducts a considerable trade.—Epidaurus is a small town at the recess of the gulf of Argos; it is naturally strong and is provided with a tolerable port. Its situation is particularly beautiful.—Argos, which with its territory anciently constituted a kingdom of the Peloponnesus, is situated on the Nacho, the ancient Nachus, and has a citadel.

CHAP. XIV.—THE ISLANDS OF THE ARCHIPELAGO.

I. THE CYCLADES.

THE islands of the Archipelago are divided by geographers into the Cyclades and Sporades. The Cyclades are a numerous group of islands to the S.W. of the Sporades, and E. of the Morea, disposed in a circle around the island of Paros. Of this group Naxos is the largest; Andros the most northern; and Santorin the most southern.

Santorin.] The island of Santorin or Santorini is situated in 36° 25′ N. lat. and 26° 1′ E. long. It was anciently called *Kallisto*, and also *Thera*. Herodotus, Pausanias, and Strabo, inform us that Theras, a descendant of Cadmus, who had governed Sparta during the minority of his nephew, the son of Aristodemus, having thereafter crossed over to the island of Callisto, which was then inhabited by a people of the same origin as himself, with the aid of the Minyans who accompanied him, made himself master of the island, and bestowed upon it his own name. This Lacedæmonian colony afterwards fell into the hands of the Athenians. This island exhibits numerous volcanic appearances, and seems to have once composed the crater of a vast burning mountain. The soil is less sterile, however, than first appearances indicate; it produces barley, wheat, and legumes. Among the fruit-trees the fig and the almond are the most common, and the vines afford an excellent wine, which forms the principal source of revenue, and of which about 300,000 gallons are annually exported. The population is about 12,000 souls; and the island is considered the richest and most populous of the Archipelago, in proportion to its extent. There are five small towns upon this island. Santorin is surrounded by several small islands bearing the marks of volcanic origin. That of Cameni or *Hiera*, we are informed by Justin, was elevated above the surface of the sea by an earthquake which occurred A. M. 3804. Another small island called Thia first appeared during the reign of Claudius, but soon afterwards sunk again under the waters. In 1373 a new eruption gave existence to the islet called Micra-Cameni; and in 1707 another formed the island called Nea-Cameni.

Nanphio] The Argonauts on their return from Colchis are said to have discovered the island of Nanfio, to which they gave the name of *Anaphe*. It is a small island to the E. of Santorin. The soil is good but poorly cultivated, and the whole population is concentrated in one wretched little town.

Stampalia.] To the S.E. of Naxos, in 36° 30′ of N. lat. lies the island of Stampalia or *Astypale*, also called *Pyrra*, *Pyle*, and *Theon-trapeza*, or 'the table of the gods.' This latter appellation was bestowed upon it on account of the fertility of the soil, and the abundance of the flowers and rich plants which everywhere covered it. The inhabitants are few in number, but are remarkably polished in their manners. Fish are abundant around the coast.

Amorgos.] To the N.W. of Stampalia lies the island of Amorgos, anciently called *Pataga* and *Hypera*, the birth-place of Simonides. It consists of two large mountains, which are in many spots covered with the *Scilla maritima*, but affords no timber. The inhabitants use a species of *Lycia* for fuel. In the strait formed between the islands of Amorgos, Naxos, and Nio, we find the islets of Karos or *Cheiro*, Skinosa or *Schino-*

oussa, Raclia or *Nicasia*, and the Great and Little Gaphnisa. These islets are uninhabited, and produce nothing but fuel-wood and a few medicinal plants.

Nio.] Nio, the ancient *Ios*, anciently peopled by an Ionian colony, is situated to the S.W. of Amorgos in 36° 50′ of latitude. It is about 40 miles in circumference, and is well-cultivated, producing a large quantity of wheat. Its harbours are excellent, particularly that of Manganari. The pilots of this island are considered the most able in the Levant. Olivier estimated the population at 3,700. It has been asserted that Nio contains the tomb of Homer, who died here while on a voyage from Samos to Athens; but this is far from being certain.

Naxos.] Naxos, now Naxia, the reputed birth-place of Bacchus, and hence sometimes called *Dionysius*, is said to be 25 miles in length, and 88 in circumference. It was anciently a powerful republic, and commanded the surrounding seas in the time of the Persian war. It is situated in 37° N. lat., and is of an oval form, its length being from N. to S. Its coasts present several small harbours. High mountains extend across it, of which that called Dia is the most elevated; their base is composed of schistus and granite, above which rest stratas of white marble or hard limestone. To the N. of Dia rises Mount Corono, and on the E. Mount Fanari. In these mountains emery is found in great quantities, and a beautiful kind of marble called *ophiiodes*, from its being speckled like the skin of a serpent. The capital, also named Naxia, is situated on the N.W. coast of the island, and overlooks a plain of considerable extent. Naxia abounds in delicious valleys and fertile plains, in which the olive, the orange, the lemon, the citron, the pomegranate, the fig, the mulberry, and the vine are cultivated. This island contains 10,000 inhabitants, and belongs chiefly to the descendants of noble Venetian families, whose contempt of agriculture is unhappily imitated by the peasantry. The dress of the women is somewhat peculiar. Upon their shoulders they wear two pieces of black velvet which project behind, and have very much the appearance of wings; the breast is loaded with a richly adorned stomacher likewise of black velvet; and their eyebrows and eyelashes are carefully blackened to improve their charms. Stenosa is a small inhabited island on the N.E. of Naxia. Between these two the islet of Acariesqua is situated.

Paros.] This island, one of the most celebrated of the Cyclades, has borne a variety of appellations, both in ancient and modern times. It has been successively called *Pactia, Minois, Demetrias, Zacynthe, Yrie, Hilyessa*, and *Kavarnis*. Its inhabitants were long renowned for their indomitable valour; but they were at length conquered by Themistocles, and again by Mithridates. Paros is situated in 37° N. lat. and is peopled by about 2,000 souls. Its interior is mountainous, and the marble dug from Mount Capresso or *Marpesus*, was once esteemed the finest in the world, on account of its exquisite purity. The harbour of Narissa is one of the best in the Archipelago. Parecchia, its principal town, is built upon the ruins of the ancient *Paros*. Archilochus, the inventer of iambic verses, Evenus, a distinguished elegiac poet, Agoracritus, the disciple of Phidias, Arcesilaus and Nicenor, both famous painters, were natives of this island. The famous Arundel marbles now in the university of Oxford were discovered here.

Antiparos.] About 2 miles to the W. of Paros is the small island called Antiparos. Its circumference is not more than 16 miles; but the soil is

well-cultivated, and supports about 1,200 souls. It offers nothing remarkable but its celebrated grotto, of which Olivier is at a loss to determine whether it ought to be considered as a marble quarry long excavated, or a vast natural cavity.[12] To the S.W. of Antiparos are the islets of Strongilo and Despotico.

[12] This singular cavern remained long unknown, even to those who lived in its neighbourhood, until the 17th century, when it was discovered by Magni an Italian. Since that time it has been visited and minutely described by Tournefort, Choisseul and several other travellers; but no account of it appears to be more satisfactory than that which is published in the *British Magazine*, signed Charles Saunders, and dated 24th February, 1746-7. As this account is considered sufficiently authentic, and is extremely *naive* and interesting, it would be unjust to deny the reader an opportunity of perusing it: "Its entrance," says this writer, "lies in the side of a rock, about 2 miles from the sea-shore; and is a spacious and very large arch, formed of rough craggy rocks, overhung with brambles and a great many climbing plants, that give it a gloominess which is awful and agreeable. Our surgeon, myself, and four passengers, attended by six guides with lighted torches, entered this cavern about eight o'clock in the morning, in the middle of August last. We had not gone 20 yards in this cavity, when we lost all sight of daylight; but our guides going before us with lights, we entered into a low narrow kind of alley, surrounded every way with stones all glittering like diamonds in the light of our torches; the whole being covered and lined throughout with small crystals, gave a thousand various colours by their different reflections. This alley grows lower and narrower, as one goes on, till at length one can scarce get along it.—At the end of this passage we were each of us presented with a rope to tie about our middle; which when we had done, our guides led us to the brink of a most horrible precipice. The descent into this was quite steep, and the place all dark and gloomy. We could see nothing, in short, but some of our guides with torches in a miserable dark place at a vast distance below us. The dreadful depth of this place, and the horror of the descent through a miserable darkness into it, made me look back to the lane of diamonds, if I may so call it, through which we had just passed; and I could not but think that I was leaving heaven to descend to the infernal regions. The hope of something fine at my journey's end tempted me, however, to trust myself to the rope and my guides at the top to let myself down. After about two minutes' dangling in this posture, not without much pain as well as terror, I found myself safe, however, at the bottom; and our friends all soon followed the example. When we had congratulated here with one another, on our safe descent. I was inquiring where the grotto, as they called it, was. Our guides, shaking their heads, told us we had a great way to that yet, and led us forward about 30 yards, under a roof of ragged rock, in a scene of terrible darkness, and at a vast depth from the surface of the earth, to the brink of another precipice much deeper and more terrible than the former. Two of the guides went down here with their torches first, and by their light we could see that this passage was not so perpendicular indeed as the other, but lay in a very steep slant, with a very slippery rock for the bottom,—vast pieces of rough rugged rocks jutting out in many places, on the right hand, in the descent, and forcing the guides sometimes to climb over, sometimes to creep under them, and sometimes to round them,—and on the left, a thousand dark caverns, like so many monstrous wells, ready if a foot should slip to swallow them up for ever. We stood on the edge to see these people with their lights descend before us; and were amazed and terrified to see them continue descending till they seemed at a monstrous and most frightful depth. When they were at the bottom, however, they holloed to us; and we, trembling and quaking, began to descend after them. We had not got 30 feet down, when we came to a place where the rock was perfectly perpendicular, and a vast cavern seemed to open its mouth to swallow us upon one side, while a wall of rugged rock threatened to tear us to pieces on the other. I was quite disheartened at this terrible prospect, and declared I would go back, but our guides assured us there was no danger, and the rest of the company resolving to see the bottom, now they were come so far, I would not leave them; so on we went to a corner where there was placed an old slippery and rotten ladder, which hung down close to the rock, and down this, one after another, we at length all descended. When we had got to the bottom of this, we found ourselves at the entrance of another passage, which was terrible enough indeed; but in this there was not wanting something of beauty. This was a wide and gradual descent; at the entrance of which one of our guides seated himself on his breech, and began to slide, telling us that we must do the same. We could discover by the light of his torch, that this passage was one of the noblest vaults in the world. It is about 9 feet high, 7 wide, and has for its bottom a fine green glossy marble. The walls and arch of the roof of this, being as smooth and even in most places as if wrought by art, and made of a fine glittering red and white granite, supported here and there with columns of a deep blood-red shining porphyry, made with the reflection of the lights an appearance not to be conceived. This passage is at least 40 yards long; and of so steep a descent, that one has enough to do when seated on one's breech not to descend too quickly. Our guides that we kept

Serpho.] To the N.W. of Antiparos lies the circular island of Serpho or *Seripho*, with an excellent harbour. This island was employed by the Romans as a place of exile for their state-criminals. To the E. of Serpho lies the islet of Serphopoulo.

Siphnos.] To the W. of Antiparos, lies the island of Siphnos or Siphanto,

with us could here keep on each side of us; and what with the prodigious grandeur and beauty of the place,—our easy travelling through it,—and the diversion of our now and then running over one another whether we would or not,—this was much the pleasantest part of our journey. When we had entered this passage I imagined we should be at the bottom, to join the two guides we had first set down; but alas! when we got there we found ourselves only at the mouth of another precipice, down which we descended by a second ladder not much better than the former. I could have admired this place also, would my terror have suffered me; but the dread of falling kept all my thoughts employed during my descent; I could not but observe, however, as my companions were coming down after me, that the wall—if I may so call it—which the ladder hung by, was one mass of blood-red marble, covered with white sprigs of rock-crystal as long as my finger, and making, with the glow of the purple from behind, one continued immense sheet of amethysts. From the foot of this ladder, we slid on our bellies through another shallow vault of polished green and white marble, about 20 feet; and at the bottom of this joined our guides. Here we all got together once again, and drank some rum to give us courage before we proceeded any farther. After this short refreshment, we proceeded by a straight but somewhat slanting passage, of a rough, hard, and somewhat coarse stone, full of a thousand strange figures of snakes rolled round and looking as if alive, but in reality as cold and hard as the rest of the stone, and nothing but some of the stone itself in that shape. We walked pretty easy along this descent for near 200 yards, where we saw two pillars seemingly made to support the roof from falling in; but in reality it was no such thing, for they were very brittle, and made of a fine glittering yellow marble. When we had passed these about 200 yards, we found ourselves at the brink of another very terrible precipice, but this our guides assured us was the last; and there being a very good ladder to go down by, we readily ventured. At the bottom of this steep wall, as I may call it, we found ourselves for some way upon plain even ground; but after about 40 yards walking, were presented by our guides with ropes again which we fastened about our middles, not to be swung down by, but only for fear of danger, as there are lakes and deep waters all the way from hence on the left hand. With this caution, however, we entered the alley; and horrible work it was indeed to get through it. All was perfectly horrid and dismal here; the sides and roof of the passage were all of black stone; and the rocks in our way were in some places so steep that we were forced to lie all along on our backs, and slide down, and so rough that they cut our clothes and bruised us miserably in passing. Over our heads there were nothing but rugged black rocks, some of them looking as if they were every moment ready to fall in upon us; and on our left hands, the light of our guides' torches showed us continually the surface of dirty and miserable looking lakes of water. If I had heartily repented of my expedition often before, here I assure you I was all in a cold sweat, and fairly gave myself over for lost, heartily cursing all the travellers that had written of this place, that they had described it so as to tempt people to see it, and never told us of the horrors that lay in the way, In the midst of all these reflections, and in the very dismalest part of all the cavern. on a sudden we had lost four of our six guides. What was my terror at this sight! The place was a thousand times darker and more terrible for want of their torches, and I expected no other than every moment to follow them into some of those lakes into which I doubted not but they were fallen. The remaining two guides said all they could, indeed, to cheer us up; and told us that we should see the other four again soon, and that we were near the end of our journey. I don't know what effect this might have upon the rest of my companions but I assure you I believed no part of the speech but the last, which I expected every moment to find fulfilled in some pond or precipice. Our passage was by this time become very narrow, and we were obliged to crawl on all fours, over rugged rocks, when, in an instant, and in the midst of all these melancholy apprehensions, I heard a little hissing noise and saw myself in utter and not to be described darkness. Our guides called indeed cheerfully to us, and told us that they had accidentally dropt their torches into a puddle of water, but we should soon come to the rest of them, and they would light them again; and told us there was no danger, and we had nothing to do but to crawl forward. I cannot say but I was amazed at the courage of those people, who were in a place where, I thought, four of them had already perished, and from whence we could none of us ever escape; and determined to lie down and die where I was. Words cannot describe the horror or the extreme darkness of the place. One of our guides, however, perceiving that I did not advance, came up to me, and clapping his hand firmly over my eyes, dragged me a few paces forward. While I was in this strange condition, expecting every moment death in a thousand shapes, and trembling to think what the guide meant by this rough proceeding, he lifted me at once over a great stone, set me down on my feet, and

the ancient *Merapia*, *Acis*, or *Astragala*. The base of this pleasant and fruitful island is a mixture of marble and granite. Silver and gold mines were anciently wrought here; but the only metal now wrought is lead, which is found near the surface of the soil in a state of oxidation. The number of inhabitants is estimated at about 6000.—To the S. of Siphnos is the little uninhabited isle of Chytriani.

Argentiera.] *Cimolis* or *Cimolos*, now Argentiera, is situated in 36° 45′ N. lat. It has received its modern appellation from its doubtful possession of a silver-mine. It is a mountainous uninteresting spot, consisting chiefly of volcanic mountains, and containing about 200 inhabitants. The Cimolian earth, used by the ancients as fuller's earth, appears to have been porphyry in the last stage of decomposition.

Milo.] An unhealthy atmosphere infected by sulphureous exhalations, and bad water, have almost depopulated the once flourishing isle of *Melos*,

took his hand from before my eyes. What words can describe at that instant my astonishment and transport! Instead of darkness and despair, all was splendour and magnificence before me,—our guides all appeared about us,—the place was illuminated by 50 torches,—and the guides all welcomed me to the grotto of Antiparos. The four that were first missing, I now found had only given us the slip to get the torches lighted up before we came; and the other two had put out their lights on purpose to make us enter out of utter darkness into this pavilion of splendour and glory. I am now come to the proper business of this letter, which was to describe this grotto. But I must confess to you that words cannot do it. The amazing beauties of the place, the eye that sees them only can conceive. The best account I can give you, however, pray accept of.

"The people told us the depth of this place was 485 yards. The grotto in which we now were is a cavern of 120 yards long, and 113 wide, and seems about 60 yards high in most places. These measures differ from the accounts travellers in general give us; but you may depend on them as exact, for I took them with my own hand. Imagine, then, within yourself, an immense arch like this, all over-lined with fine and bright crystallized white marble, and illuminated with 50 torches, and you will then have some faint idea of the place I had the pleasure to spend three hours in. This, however, is but a faint description of its beauties. The roof, which is a fine vaulted arch, is hung all over with icicles of white shining marble, some of them 10 feet long, and as thick as one's middle at the root; and among these there hang a thousand festoons of leaves and flowers, of the same substance, but so very glittering that there is no bearing to look up at them. The sides of the arch are planted with seeming trees of the same white marble, rising in rows one above another, and often enclosing the points of the icicles. From these trees there are also hung festoons, tied as it were from one to another in vast quantities; and in some places among them there seem rivers of marble winding through them in a thousand meanders. All these things are only made in a long course of years, from the dripping of water, but really look like trees and brooks turned to marble. The floor we trode upon was rough and uneven, with crystals of all colours growing irregularly out of it,--red, blue, green, and some of a pale yellow. These were all shaped like pieces of saltpetre, but so hard that they cut our shoes; among these, here and there, are placed icicles of the same shining white marble with those above, and seeming to have fallen down from the roof and fixed there, only the big end of them is to the floor. To all these our guides had tied torches, two or three to a pillar, and kept continually beating them to make them burn bright. You may guess what a glare of splendour and beauty must be the effect of this illumination among such rocks and columns of marble. All round the lower part of the sides of the arch, are a thousand white masses of marble, in the shape of oak trees. Mr Tournefort compares them to cauliflowers, but I should as soon compare them to toad-stools. In short, they are large enough to enclose, in many places a piece of ground big enough for a bed-chamber. One of these chambers has a fair white curtain, whiter than satin, of the same marble, stretched all over the front of it. In this we all cut our names and the date of the year, as a great many people have done before us. In the course of a few years afterwards, the stone blisters out like this white marble over the letters. Mr Tournefort thinks the rock grows like oaks or apple-trees, for this reason; but I remember I saw some of the finest cockle and muscle shells, in the rock thereabouts, that ever I saw in my life. I wonder whether he thinks they grew there too. Besides, if this rock grows so fast, the cavern ought to be all grown up by this time; and yet attending to his measure and mine, the cavern seems, on the other hand, to be turned larger since. Indeed, all that I can gather from his account of this glorious place is, that he drank a bottle or two too much before he went down into it."

called also *Gorgia*, *Zephyra*, *Meleda*, and *Mimallis*, now Milo. This island is 60 miles in circuit, and contains about 500 inhabitants. The village of Sifour, called by the Greeks Castrou, lying under the heights of cape Bombarda, is the healthiest and most populous spot in the island. The Miliotes preserved neutrality in the Peleponnesian war, on account of which the Athenians devastated their territory and put all the males to the sword.—Antimelos or *Aceludion* is a small island in view of Melos, and probably owes its origin to volcanic agency. Between the eastern shores of the Morea and the latter island are situated the islets of Falconera and Belo-perilo; and to the N.E. of Melos lies the island of Tragonissi, whose only inhabitants are numerous herds of goats.

Polycandro.] This island, the ancient *Philocandros*, is remarkable only for its ruggedness and sterility.

Sicino.] Sicinus, son of Thoas, king of Lemnos, is reputed to have given his name to this island, called also *Sicandros*, and from the excellence of its wine *Œnoe*. The soil is fertile and produces excellent wheat. Betwixt these two latter islands is a small rock called Notre Dame de Cardioulissa.

Myconos.] The island of Myconos retains its ancient appellation. It produces wheat, wine, and figs, all of excellent quality; but the soil is arid, and its inhabitants direct their attention chiefly to navigation. The port of Saint Ann on the W. coast offers a good anchorage to vessels navigating the Archipelago. The population amounts to about 3000 souls; the women are considered beautiful, but strangely affect to paint themselves. Not far from the harbour of Saint Ann are the two small rocky islets of Dragonissi and Stapodia; and to the S.W., betwixt Myconos and Delos, is the islet of Prassonissi noted for the culture of the *Alium prasum*.

Delos.] A little to the W. of Myconos lie the two celebrated islands of Delos, called by the modern Greeks The Dili, and by mariners Isdili. Everywhere schistose or granitical, the Little Delos exhibits no trace of volcano,—nothing, says Olivier, that can explain, by the laws of physics, the wonders which the Greeks have transmitted to us respecting the island which afforded shelter to the mother of Apollo and Diana. Rhenea, or the Great Delos, is also uninhabited, though some portion of it is cultivated by the peasants of Myconos.

Tino.] The island of *Tenos*, now Tino, ranks next to Scio in the industry of its inhabitants, whose numbers in 1795, according to a register kept by order of the primate, amounted to 15,800, of whom only about 10,000 were of the Greek church. The great article of commerce is silk. It produces also wine, figs, oranges, and honey.

Andros.] North from Tino one and a half miles, in 37° 30′ N. lat. lies the island of Andros, called also *Cauron*, *Antandros*, and *Ydroussa*. Like the former it is mountainous and lofty, though possessing more land fit for cultivation. When Olivier visited it the population was estimated at 12,000 inhabitants, who exported silk, oranges, and lemons to Athens and the Morea.

Syra.] *Syros* or Syra is situated in 37° 15′ N. lat. It is mountainous, but produces wheat, barley, wine, grapes, olives and cotton. Its climate is colder than that of the neighbouring islands. Syra, the principal town, is built upon a hill on the N.E. coast. Betwixt the town and its harbour are the remains of the ancient Syros the birthplace of the philosopher Pherecydes.—Syra has not more than 4,000 inhabitants. The little islands of Grado, Scarpa, and Nata lie off the eastern coast.

Thermia.] Some modern geographers have given to this island the name of *Cythnos*. It is fertile in barley, wine, and figs; and produces a sufficient quantity of cotton for the use of its inhabitants who are about 6,000 in number, and chiefly reside in the two villages of Silaca and Thermia. It forms the see of a bishop. The ruins of *Hebreocastro* on the western coast attest the ancient magnificence of that city.—Piperi and Serphopoulo are two small islands to the S.E. of Thermia.

Zea.] The island of *Cia*, *Ceos*, Tzia, or Zea, the birthplace of Simonides and Bachylides, Erasistratus and Ariston, is a fertile spot, inhabited by about 7000 souls. One of its principal articles of exportation is the fruit of the *Quercus ægilops*, which under the name of *velani* is extensively used in tanning. There were four very famous cities upon this island in ancient times: *Karthea*, upon the ruins of which the present town of Zea is built: *Nidus*, of which there are no longer any remains existing; *Pæessa* and *Karessus*, both of which have likewise disappeared.

The Spetziai.] Under this name are comprehended several little islands situated at the mouth of the gulf of Napoli di Romania. The principal one of the group is called Spetzia, and lies directly opposite to Cape Oursino. The gallantry of the Spetziotes has been conspicuously displayed during the whole course of the present struggle with Turkey.

Hydra.] The rocky island of Hydra lies to the E. of the gulf of Nauplia. Its soil is sterile, but the active and enterprising character of its inhabitants, who are said to amount to 50,000, has rendered it the scene of active industry and commerce. The Hydriotes, before the breaking out of the revolutionary war, are said to have possessed 350 merchant-ships, of which 120 were from 150 to 170 tons burden. These vessels were chiefly employed in transporting the productions of the Grecian continent to the various harbours of the Mediterranean. During the war they converted a number of their merchant-vessels into ships of war carrying from 10 to 24 guns, with which they have repeatedly beaten the Turkish fleet. The town of Hydra is well-built, and possesses a small but deep and secure harbour. It is here that the great body of the population is concentrated.

Poros.] Poros or *Calauria* is separated by a very narrow strait from the eastern shores of the Morea. It forms with the peninsula of Methana a kind of gulf having a double outlet. This island—which is little more than a sterile rock inhabited by a few families—was peopled along with the Spetziai and Hydra when Bajazet subdued the Albanians.—Off cape Skyli lies a small group of islands called The Corsair islands, and farther up the gulf of Egina are the two islands of Joreney and Cophinidia.

Egina.] The ancient *Œnone* or *Myrmidonia*, now called Egina, is a mountainous and unfertile island with about 1000 inhabitants. It contains the ruins of two magnificent ancient temples, one dedicated to Jupiter, the other to Venus. At a little distance from this island are the small islands of Moni, Platia, Angystei, the Kerades, the Pente-Nissia, and Heoræonissi.

Colouri.] Colouri, the ancient *Salamis*, is situated at the bottom of the gulf of the same name. The soil is arid, and presents nothing but olives and pine-trees. The site of the ancient town of Salamis is occupied by the modern Ambelaki. The port is large and deep.—Quitting this isle, and proceeding along the western shores of Attica, we encounter the isles of Falcondi or Phlega near cape Halikes, the French isle or Elisa at the entry of port Anaphriso, and the Provencal isle or Gaidouronissi nigh to Cape Caraca.

Negroponte.] The strait of Bocca-Silota, in which the Grecian fleet was lost on its return from Troy, separates the Cyclades from Negroponte the ancient *Eubœa*, *Abantis*, or *Macris*. The configuration of this island exactly resembles that of Italy, presenting the form of a boot of which Cape Lithada or *Cenee* forms the point. It is above 100 miles in length, presents a superficies of 1500 square miles, and is said to contain about 60,000 inhabitants. Its coasts afford several excellent harbours, particularly those of Carysto and Kimi on the S., and that of Lero on the N.E. It is separated from the coasts of Livadia by a narrow strait called the Euripus, across which a magnificent bridge has been thrown, in the middle of which is a draw-bridge for the passage of vessels. The irregularity of the flux and reflux of the sea in this strait has attracted the attention of many philosophers, but no satisfactory explanation of the phenomenon has yet been offered. From the 1st to the 7th, the 14th to the 20th, and during the three last days of the moon's age, the ebb and tide are regular; but in all the other days the movements of the ocean are quite irregular,—only one tide, and sometimes three, and sometimes four tides occurring in the space of 24 hours. The principal rivers are the Koumi which rises in mount Delfi and runs from N. to E., and the Mestenosa, which has its origin in the heights of Vlachovouni. This island still abounds as in ancient times with flocks, corn, and wine; its honey also is delicious, and owes its fine quality to the quantity of roses which are grown here. There are several neglected quarries of beautiful marble in the neighbourhood of Carysto; asbestos or amianthus is also found here. Negroponte or Egripo, the capital, whose bridge connects the island with the continent, is well-fortified, and reckoned one of the keys of Greece. Its population is said to amount to 15,000 souls.

II. THE SPORADES.

Skiathos.] This small island is separated by the strait of Saint George from the coast of Thessaly, near the entrance of the gulf of Volo. Skiathi, the capital, is situated at the northern extremity of the island, on a high and steep rock, accessible only by a bridge, and contains about 1,000 inhabitants.

Scopelos.] This island is separated from Skiathos by a small channel strewn with rocky islets. It is very fertile, and is said to contain about 12,000 inhabitants.

Chelidromia.] To the E. of the little inhabited island of Chelidromia is the island of Sacakino or Peristeri: on the S. are the islands of The Three Brothers; on the S.E. the island of Scangero; and on the N. the islands of Pelagnissi, Prassonissi, Piperi, Iouda-Nissi, and Arsura-Nissi. All these islands form a kind of chain of uninhabited rocks at the entrance of the gulf of Salonica.

Skyros.] Skyros is situated to the E. of Negroponte. It is very barren, being nearly covered with steep and naked rocks. It is the see of a bishop, but does not contain above 2,000 inhabitants. Homer calls this island *Œpee*, and Lycophron *Œgylipe*. It is evidently of volcanic origin. Copper appears to have once been wrought in it.

Lemnos.] This island, sometimes known by the more modern name of Stalimene, is situated in 40° 3′ N. lat., and 25° 28′ E. long. Its length is about 24 miles, and its breadth about 15 miles. The soil is fertile; but the greater part of the produce consists of wine and grain. The earth

called *terra lemna* has now lost much of that reputation which it formerly enjoyed among the medical profession. The chief town, know by the name of the island, is of small size; but is nevertheless the seat of a Greek archbishop. Besides this town, Lemnos is said to contain no less than 75 villages, and a population of only 8000 souls. This island is of volcanic origin.

Thassos.] This island is situated at the entry of the gulf of Orfano the *Stymonicus Sinus*, near the coasts of Macedonia. It is the most northern of all the islands in the Archipelago. Herodotus and Thucydides mention its gold-mines, of which there is no trace existing at this day. Its marble is equal to that of Paros; and it is fertile in honey, oil, and wine, besides containing some superb forests.

Samothrace.] This island, the ancient scene of the mysteries of the Cabiri, is situated at the entrance of the gulf of Saros, in 40° 25′ N. lat. It has lost every vestige of its ancient splendours and liberty.

Imbros.] To the S.E. of Samothrace, in 40° 5′ N. lat. lies the small island of Imbros, which is at the present day covered with forests. Its population does not exceed 500 souls.

The three islands last noticed are sometimes distinguished by geographers as the *Thracian Islands.*

CHAP. XV.—EJALET KIRID OR COUNTRY OF CRETE.

THIS Ejalet is composed of the island of Crete, called by the Turks *Kirid*, and commonly by Europeans, *Candia*,—a corruption of *Khandak*, a name given by the Spanish Moors or Arabians to a town which they built soon after their conquest of this island.

Situation and Extent.] This island is situated between 34° 52′ and 35° 40′ N. Lat. and between 23° 30′ and 26° 25′ E. Long. Its shores are washed on the N. by that part of the Archipelago which is sometimes called the sea of Candia; on the N.E. are the straits of Scarpanto, which separate the island of that name from Candia; the Mediterranean washes its southern shores; and on the N.E. are the straits of Cerigotto. Its N.W. extremity is about 23 leagues S.S.E. from the Morea; and its N.E. point, 37 leagues S.S.W. from Anatolia: so that this island forms a kind of intermediate ground betwixt Europe and Asia; and may serve to fix the dubious limits between the Archipelago and the Mediterranean. It is about 172 miles in length, and its average breadth 25 miles. Its superficial extent is estimated by Hassel at 4,325 square miles, and by Stein at 4,234 square miles.

History.] Candia has borne different appellations in ancient as well as modern times. It was called *Æria*, *Idæa* from Mount Ida, *Curetia* from the Curetes, and *The Fortunate island*, from the serenity of its climate and the richness of its productions. Crete enjoyed the paternal government of Minos, who was succeeded by a line of royal chiefs. A republican government was established upon this island previous to its subjugation by the Romans. From these conquerors it passed to the emperors of the East, who retained this possession until 823. The Arabians established themselves in Candia in the 9th century; but were expelled in 952. The Genoese having got possession of this island ceded it to Boniface, marquis of Montserrat, who sold it in 1204 to the Venetians, who retained possession of it till the 17th century, when after a disastrous war

of 24 years, it fell into the hands of the Turks in 1669, who have possessed it ever since. The inhabitants are at present (1829) engaged in a struggle for their liberty, the issue of which time only can determine.

Physical Features.] It cannot escape notice that while the greater part of the islands of the Archipelago have a direction, in their extreme length from N. to S., with a greater or less inclination to the E. or W., the position of Crete is exactly the reverse. Its coasts are very irregular and deeply indented; the northern coast affords some excellent harbours and secure roadsteds; the southern is elevated and nearly unapproachable. The gulf of Hissamos, on the coast of which are the ruins of ancient *Aptera*, is formed by the two promontories of Boso and Spada. The gulf of Canea presents an excellent roadsted to the navigator, that of Souda is considered to be the best shelter for vessels in the whole island. Cape Matala forms the most southern point of Europe. This island is traversed throughout its whole length by a chain of calcareous mountains, between which lie the valleys or plains of Gortyna, Candia, Canea, and Girapetro. This long chain presents three principal points; on the W. are the Sphakiot mountains, or the Sphakiottici or Asprovouna, the *Leucos* of the ancients, which are also called the White Mountains, from their retaining the snow on their summits throughout eight or nine months of the year. In the centre is mount Psilorii, the *Ida* of the ancients, which rises to the height of 1200 toises or 7,690 English feet above the level of the sea, and of which the summit is covered with snow throughout a great part of the year. The circumference of its base is not less than 25 leagues: it consists of a group of hills heaped one above another in a pyramidical form. The eastern part is composed of Mount Lasiti, Cavontci, and Sethia the ancient *Dictæa*, which gently slope toward the coast. The greater part of these mountains are clothed with forests of cypresses, plantanes, and carubes; extensive districts are covered with aromatic herbs and shrubs, from some species of which gum-dragon is obtained. The torrents which descend from the mountains, usually disappear in summer; but there are numerous springs in this island which supply the purposes of irrigation. The calcareous rock which forms the basis of the island is easily formed into caverns, and no country in the world, perhaps, abounds more in natural excavations.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.] The climate of Candia is mild and salubrious in the plains. The extremes of heat and cold are here equally unknown; for, although situated at nearly equal distances betwixt the coasts of Africa and Europe, the heat is tempered in summer by the wind which the natives call *enbat*, which blows in the Archipelago from the N. throughout the greater part of the day. Sometimes, however, the thermometer reaches 88° F. in summer. Very little rain falls during the summer; but heavy dews preserve the freshness and brilliance of the vegetation; and in autumn plentiful showers fall. Earthquakes are frequently felt in the northern parts of the island. The leprosy is the only endemic disorder known. The greater portion of the soil is dry and stony, and ill-adapted for the culture of the cerealia: although, were the inhabitants at all industrious, sufficient grain might be raised for the home-consumption. Lint, cotton, and tobacco are cultivated; but fruits, wine, and oil form the staple-productions of the country. The olive thrives everywhere, and attains an extreme age and immense size here. The Malvoise raisins are highly esteemed; they are principally prepared at Milopotamo. Myrtles and rose-laurels overshadow every rivulet; and

the plains and pastures are enamelled with flowers of every hue and fragrance. Tournefort and Olivier have explored the botany of this island. The goats of Candia are a remarkably fine breed, and the sheep are highly esteemed for the delicacy of their mutton. The reptiles common to the other islands of the Archipelago are found here; the lizards are accounted venomous by the inhabitants, but Olivier affirms that they are quite harmless. Brandy, oil, fruits, soap, and cheese are the principal articles of exportation. The oil of Mirabello and Stia is almost all employed in the manufacture of soap which is sent principally to Constantinople, its exportation into Christendom being rigidly prohibited. The ports of Rettimo and Candia, before the breaking out of the civil war, exported oil and soap to the value of £100,000 annually, although the trade was much shackled by the absurd regulations of the Turks.

Population.] The Achaians, the brave Eteocretes, the Cydonians, the Dorian Trichaians, and the Pelasgians were among the early inhabitants of Crete. This island was in ancient times extremely populous. The poets describe it as containing 100 cities; and if, with Savary, we reckon the average population of these cities to have been 6,000 souls, their total population would be 600,000; and, supposing the other inhabitants of the island to be equal in number, the whole amount of this island's population would be 1,200,000 souls. The present population has been variously estimated, but certainly does not much exceed one-fourth of this number. Savary estimated it at 350,200; of whom 200,000 were Turks, 150,000 Greeks, and 200 Jews. The Cretans, both Mussulmen and Christians, are in general tall and vigorous men, and particularly skilful in the use of the bow, a weapon which frequently appears on ancient Cretan medals. Among the Mahommedan part of the population we must rank the Abadiotes, the descendants of those Saracens whom Nicephorus Phocas expelled from Crete in the 10th century. They are a smaller and weaker race than the other inhabitants, speaking the Arabian language, and located in the neighbourhood of Ida. The Candiotes are extremely ignorant, superstitious, and bigoted. In 1817 there were only three schools, attended by 80 scholars, in the whole island.

Government.] The island of Candia is divided into the three sandshaks of Candia, Canea, and Rettimo. The government is entrusted to a pasha of three tails, who resides at Candia, and under whom are two other pashas.

Towns.] Candia, the capital, according to Tournefort, is built on the site of the ancient *Cytæum* or *Matium*. It is inhabited by about 12,000 Turks, 3,000 Greeks, and 50 Jews. It offers a splendid *coup-d'œil* from the sea; but on the land-side its high walls and advanced works conceal the view from the spectator. The houses are well-built; but seldom rise to two stories, and present no exterior facade, so that the streets appear to run between two parallel walls, the monotonous uniformity of which is only broken by gates here and there, and occasionally a patch of trellis-work covered with vines. The harbour might contain 40 vessels if it were cleared of the sand which at present chokes it. In the neighbourhood of the town is the Turkish cemetery, a favourite promenade of the Turks. The sandshak of Candia forms the eastern part of the island; extending from Mount Psilorii to Cape Salemone.—Canea is a fortified town on the N.W. coast with 7,150 inhabitants. The sandshak of Canea forms the western part of Candia.—Rettimo is situated on the ruins of the ancient *Rhitymnæ*. It is a pleasant little town with about 5,000 inhabitants.

Antiquities—The Labyrinth.] Crete, which anciently contained so many cities, and was the centre of arts, commerce, and politeness, must still possess many remains of antiquity. These have, in many cases, been minutely described by different travellers; but to particularize their various descriptions would be a task by far too extensive for us. One of its monuments, however, has so much attracted the attention of the curious, and is in itself so astonishing, that it demands a more particular description. This monument is the Labyrinth, in the neighbourhood of the ancient Gortynia,—the residence of the famed but fabulous Minotaur. In order to explore it with safety it is necessary to be provided with a clew of cord, to serve the purpose of the thread of Ariadne. The mouth of the labyrinth is natural, and very narrow. But, advancing a little way, we find a wide passage—though somewhat obstructed by large stones lying here and there—with a flat roof cut in the rock above. Out of this you ascend by a narrow path which strikes off from the right side of the entrance; and a person is here obliged to creep on his hands and feet for 100 paces, because the roof is very low. At the end of this narrow passage, the ceiling suddenly rises to a considerable elevation, and various roads open on each side and cross each other in different directions. They are generally about 7 feet high, and from 6 to 10, sometimes more in wideness, and they are all cut with a chisel in the rock, the layers of which are disposed in an horizontal direction, and are of a grayish colour. It is impossible to enumerate or describe the variety or complication of the winding-paths which are cut in the rock. Some of them form curves leading imperceptibly to a wide space, the roof of which is supported by huge pillars, and where three or four roads meet running in opposite directions. Others, extending in a curved direction for a considerable way, end in several ramifications which are carried to a great length, and terminated by the rock. "We travelled cautiously," says Savary, "through the windings of this vast labyrinth, amidst eternal shades, the obscurity of which our torches could scarcely penetrate. In such a place as this, imagination calls up a numerous train of frightful or fantastic images,—she fancies steep precipices ready to insnare the feet of the curious observer,—monsters ready to spring upon him from every corner,—in a word, a thousand chimeras which have no real existence." "After walking," the same traveller adds, "for a considerable time through the dreadful cavern of the Minotaur, we arrived at the extremity of the passage whose direction Tournefort had followed. We there entered a kind of large hall ornamented with a variety of inscriptions, the most ancient of which does not seem to have been earlier than the 14th century. To the right there is another, nearly of the same form. Each of them may be about 24 or 30 feet square. By the time we got there, we had unfolded almost the whole of our rope; that is to say, we had walked about 400 fathoms without mentioning the different excursions we had made in those places where we were stopt by the rock. We continued three hours in the labyrinth, during which we were constantly moving about, and yet could not flatter ourselves we had examined every part of it. I am persuaded that it would be impossible for a person to find his way out if he were left alone in this cavern without either thread or torch. The horrors of the place, and the thick darkness, would fill his soul with terror, and he would perish miserably." The cavern here has no stalactites, because no water trickles through the rock. It is quite dry all over; and, as there is no admission for fresh air, has a most disagree-

able smell. Thousands of bats inhabit the dark recesses Several conjectures have been formed by different writers concerning the original formation of this cavern. That it was formed in part at least by Nature, is evident from the rudeness of many of the different passages. The art of man, it is probable, did little more than finish what Nature had commenced,—widening passages where they were narrow, and connecting such as were already formed by other windings for the purpose of increasing the intricacy. If the labyrinth has been wholly formed by art, it appears to have been art ill applied, in executing an excavation of which few, if any, have ever been able to visit all the parts. Such a labour is yet more fantastic than the erection of those useless piles the pyramids. The latter have at least the merit of being visible, while the former cannot be visited without some risk, and can be completely known to none.

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